

THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts.

No. 1771.

LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 5, 1861.

PRICE
THREEPENCE
Stamped Edition, 4d.

NOTICE.

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UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

EVENING CLASSES OF LATIN, MATHEMATICS, GREEK, AND NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.
FOUR COURSES OF FIFTEEN LECTURES each will be delivered by the Professors in the College of the respective subjects, on TUESDAYS and THURSDAYS, from 7 to 8 P.M. Latin.—The Lectures by Prof. Newman will begin on Thursday, October 17, and continue till Thursday, February 6, inclusive. The subjects of the Lectures will be Latin, Book V., with comment on the Progress of the Constitution; Cicero Pro Murena. Several Lectures will be delivered on Latin Etymology, and its dependence on other languages.

Mathematics.—The Lectures by Prof. De Morgan will begin on Tuesday, October 22, and continue till Tuesday, February 11. In these Lectures the attention of the student will be specially directed, first, to the acquirement of more power of computation than is usually gained in schools; secondly, to the fundamental points of geometrical and algebraical reasoning.

Greek.—The Lectures by Prof. Malden, A.M., will begin on Thursday, February 13, and continue till Thursday, June 5. The subject of the Lectures will be the Poems of Aeschylus; and Prof. Malden will also employ part of the time in Lectures upon the Structure of the Greek Language.

Natural Philosophy.—The Lectures by Prof. Potter, A.M., will begin on Tuesday, February 13, and continue till Tuesday, June 2. Fee for each Course, £1. 1s. 6d., and for the four Courses together, £4. 1s. 6d. To Masters of unendowed schools and others, under an arrangement proposed by Lord Brougham, for the application of the Patriot Fund, the fee will be, for a single Class, 10s.; for the four Classes, £1. 10s.

OTHER EVENING COURSES.

French.—By Prof. Ch. Cassel; Wednesday and Friday, 7 to 8 P.M. Theoretical and Practical Study of the French Language.—The Lectures will begin on Wednesday, October 16, and continue during the whole year. Fee, 4s.

Geology.—By Prof. Morris, F.G.S.; Thursday, 7 P.M., February to May. The course will include the general principles of Geology and Physical Geography. Fee, 4s.

Practical Chemistry, Birkbeck Course.—By Prof. Williamson, F.R.S., and assistants. For persons practically engaged in Manufactures.—A Course of 12 Lessons, of two hours each, on Mondays and Thursdays, from the beginning of May to the end of June. Hours, 7 to 9 P.M. Fee, including the cost of materials, &c., 2s. The course will include the most important ordinary operations of the Laboratory.

Animal Physiology.—By John Marshall, Esq., F.R.S., in February, March and April.

Zoology.—By Prof. Dr. Grant, F.R.S., in May and June.

Jurisprudence.—By Prof. Sharpe, LL.D., commencing 28th October.

Political Economy.—By Prof. Waley, M.A., commencing 1st November.

Civil Engineering.—February, March, April and May. By Prof. Poole, F.R.S., Mem. Inst. C.E.

Architecture and Construction.—By Prof. Donaldson, M.I.C.E., Feb. 1, during the entire session.

For further particulars, the respective Prospectuses may be obtained at the Office of the College.

EDWARD SPENCER BEESLY, A.M.,
Secretary to the Faculty of Arts and Laws.
CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.
Sept., 1861.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, CORK.

SESSION 1861-62.
MATRICULATION AND SCHOLARSHIP EXAMINATIONS.
ON TUESDAY, the 16th of OCTOBER NEXT, at Ten o'clock, A.M., an EXAMINATION will be held for the MATRICULATION of STUDENTS in the FACULTY OF ARTS, MEDICINE, and LAW, and in the DEPARTMENTS of CIVIL ENGINEERING and AGRICULTURE.

THE EXAMINATIONS for Scholarships will commence on MONDAY, the 21st of OCTOBER. The Council have the power of conferring, at these Examinations, TEN SENIOR SCHOLARSHIPS of the value of 400. each, viz.—SEVEN in the Faculty of Arts, Two in the Faculty of Medicine, and One in the Faculty of Law; and FORTY-FIVE JUNIOR SCHOLARSHIPS, viz.—FIFTEEN in Literature, and FIFTY in Science, of the value of 200. each; SIX in Medicine, THREE in Law, and Two in Civil Engineering, of the value of 200. each; and FIVE in Agriculture, of the value of 150. each; to sixteen of which first year's Students are eligible.

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By order of the President,
ROBERT J. KENNY, Registrar.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—

SESSION 1861-62.
PROSPECTUSES of the several Departments of the College MAY BE HAD, on application, at the Office of the College, as follows:—

Faculty of Medicine—Session commencing October 1.
Faculty of Arts and Laws—Session commencing October 15.
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CHARLES C. ATKINSON, Secretary.
September, 1861.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.—MATRICULATION EXAMINATION.

GENTLEMEN preparing for the Matriculation Examination in January, 1862, are informed that, by permission of the Council, a CLASS will be held at UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, for the purpose of reading the subjects required at that Examination. The Class will meet daily (Saturdays excepted), from 6 to 8 P.M., from October 15th to December 28th. Fee for the Course, 10s. For further particulars apply to Dr. ADAMS, University College, London, W.C.

EXAMINATIONS FOR SCIENCE CERTIFICATES OF THE COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.

THE ANNUAL EXAMINATION of the Department of Science and Art, for Certificates as Science Teachers, will commence, at South Kensington, on MONDAY, the 4th of November. Candidates wishing to present themselves must forward their names to the Secretary, Science and Art Department, South Kensington, London, W., on or before the 15th of October, except those coming up in Mechanical and Machine Drawing and Building Construction, who must send in their names by the 5th of October. By order of the Committee of Council on Education.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.—

CHEMICAL LABORATORY.
THE LABORATORY will be opened for the Winter Session on MONDAY, 4th of November. The instruction is under the immediate superintendence of the Professor of Chemistry, Dr. LYON PLAYFAIR, C.B., assisted by Mr. DITTMAR and Mr. WANKLYN, F.R.S.E.

THE LECTURES commence on TUESDAY, 5th of November. THE HOLPE PRIZE, of 500, in value, is open for competition to Laboratory Students.

NEW COLLEGE.

The Rev. WILLIAM CUNNINGHAM, D.D., Principal.

THE CLASSES for the ENSUING SESSION will MEET upon THURSDAY, the 7th of November next.

THE INTRODUCTORY LECTURE will be delivered by THE REV. PROFESSOR SKEATON, on WEDNESDAY, the 6th of November, at Two o'clock.

THE CLASSES for the different Branches of Study will be OPENED as follows:—

Classes.	Days and Hours of Attendance.	Professors.
Divinity	Junior Class .. Thurs. Nov. 7 .. 10 o'clock	Dr. Buchanan, 11, Lauriston-place.
	Senior Class .. Ditto, .. 10 o'clock	
Divinity	Junior Class .. Thurs. Nov. 7 .. 11 o'clock	Dr. Bannerman, 11, Clarendon-crescent.
	Senior Class .. Ditto, .. 11 o'clock	
Divinity and Church	Junior Class .. Thurs. Nov. 7 .. 12 o'clock	Dr. Cunningham, 17, Salisbury-road.
	Senior Class .. Ditto, .. 12 o'clock	
Hebrew and Oriental Languages	Junior Class .. Thurs. Nov. 7 .. 1 o'clock	Dr. Duncan, 3, Buccleuch-place.
	Senior Class .. Ditto, .. 1 o'clock	
Exegetical and Theology	Junior Class .. Thurs. Nov. 7 .. 2 o'clock	Prof. Smeaton, 3, D'Almeida-place.
	Senior Class .. Ditto, .. 2 o'clock	

According to these arrangements, the Curriculum for Students of Theology will stand thus:—

First Year's Students.	Attend—Dr. Duncan's Junior Class at Ten.
	Dr. Duncan's Senior ditto at Eleven.
	Natural Science Class at Twelve.
Second Year's Students.	Attend—Dr. Buchanan's Junior Class at Eleven.
	Dr. Duncan's Senior ditto at Twelve.
	Dr. Cunningham's Junior ditto at One.
Third Year's Students.	Attend—Prof. Smeaton's Junior Class at Ten.
	Dr. Cunningham's Senior Class at Eleven.
	Dr. Buchanan's ditto at One.
Fourth Year's Students.	Attend—Prof. Smeaton's Senior Class at Twelve.
	Dr. Bannerman's ditto at One.

MATRICULATION.

Students of Theology, before entering with the Professors, must Matriculate in the Library, and pay the common Fee to the Librarian.

HEBREW CLASS.

The Rev. A. B. Davidson will conduct the ordinary business of the Junior Hebrew Class, and will also have a separate Class of Hebrew for those who are preparing to enter on the regular Theological Course.

NATURAL SCIENCE.

The Select College Committee have made arrangements for a Class of Natural Science on three days in the week, to be conducted by the Rev. W. B. Cunningham, of Prestopans, and Mr. Keddie, of Glasgow. It will meet at Twelve o'clock.

JAMES BONAR, Secretary to the Senatus.
New College, Edinburgh.

MINERALOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE,

London.—Professor TENNANT, F.G.S., will commence a COURSE OF LECTURES on MINERALOGY, with a view to facilitate the study of GEOLOGY, and of the Application of Mineral Substances in the ARTS. The Lectures will begin on Friday Morning, October 4th, at 9 o'clock. They will be continued on each succeeding Wednesday and Friday, at the same hour. Fee, 2s. 2s. R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

PHYSIOLOGY.—ELEMENTARY COURSE

by PROF. BEALE, M.B. F.R.S.—These Lectures will be given at King's College, London, on WEDNESDAY EVENINGS, during the Winter Session, at Eight P.M., commencing on October 10th. Every alternate Lecture will be devoted to the Demonstration of Microscopical Specimens, which will be passed round in Portable Microscopes. Fee, 11. 11s. 6d.—For Syllabus apply to R. W. CUNNINGHAM, Secretary.

King's College, London.

THE MICROSCOPE IN CLINICAL INVESTIGATION.

Including the Chemical and Microscopical Examination of URINE, SPUTUM, VOMIT, &c.—DR. BEALE proposes to commence a COURSE OF LECTURES and DEMONSTRATIONS on the above subject on October 4th, at 9.30 A.M. Illustrative specimens will be exhibited in portable Microscopes. The Demonstrations will be given at King's College Hospital on the first and third Fridays of the month, during the Winter Session, &c. For Syllabus and cards of admission, apply at the Secretary's Office, King's College.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 5, 1861.

LITERATURE

THE AMERICAN WAR.

Specimen Articles of the New American Cyclopædia. Edited by George Ripley and Charles A. Dana. (Appleton & Co.)

Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton told his constituents on Wednesday week that he for one does not regard Democracy as on its trial in the present conflict of North and South. We are glad to have this speech from one of the philosophic statesmen of our day—from a man who has been a Secretary of State, and who may be one again. We think Sir Edward right in his view of this great question; and we hope that his opinion is shared by the Conservative party, in whose cause he fights. Some who profess to be Liberals talk of the war in Virginia as the failure of popular institutions: a mistake which undoubtedly arises from incorrect information about men and events in that great country, so near to us in sympathy and so far off in knowledge.

Correct information about America has become with us a daily want. While the Great Republic held its prosperous course, we were content to think of the Americans as a people separated from ourselves by certain peculiarities and humours, by guessing and calculating, by whittling and chewing, by lecturing and expectorating—by a love of mint julep, cock-tail, brandy-smash, and other ferocious drinks—by an eager interrogation of strangers—by a habit of sitting with feet out of window and legs over chairs—by a strong nasal intonation, and by a general readiness to whip all creation. We were content to have our droll and amusing cousins portrayed to us by such historians as Mrs. Trollope and such orators as Mr. Gough. But a change has come down upon the spirit of our dream. The farce has deepened into tragedy, and we have missed the transformation-scene. Our pleasant caricaturists will not enable us to understand the events now shaking the institutions of the New World. Widow Barnaby's friends, we see, are not the women of whom we now read in Baltimore and New Orleans—the women who turn their pretty lawns into breastworks and their elegant drawing-rooms into casemates, who send powder and shells in the coffins of their dead sons, who talk familiarly of the scalp of President Lincoln, and subscribe for the rope which is to hang President Davis. The reign of that complacent genius, which sufficed to discount a whole nation over the table of a bazaar in Cincinnati, is at an end. The greatest of all our humourists is now at fault. We have laughed, and shall laugh again, over the eccentricities of Mr. Jefferson Brick; but Jefferson Brick does not help us one whit to an understanding of Mr. Jefferson Davis. We must seek our knowledge elsewhere.

Messrs. Ripley and Dana propose to write 'A Popular Dictionary of General Knowledge, especially devoted to American History, Biography, Geography, &c., and supplying the great Want of Correct Information concerning the Present State of America and Distinguished Living American Men.' A few specimens of what they intend to do have been placed in our hands; and from these specimens we will extract a few columns of information, more or less new to English readers, on men whose names and deeds come warm to us on every sheet from Boston and New York.

First of Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States. Davis is, to ordinary readers,

the enigma of the American war. Mr. Lincoln is commonplace. General Fremont they can comprehend. They have known of Fremont for years, and have had more than one opportunity of fairly judging his calibre. But who a year ago had heard the name of Jefferson Davis? When he is first heard of, he is a giant in fame. Until he has done the most difficult and considerable thing in modern history—torn asunder a compact community of the Anglo-Saxon race—he is a mere obscure official in a cabinet at Washington, with no more presence in the world, no more visible action on events, than an English Under-Secretary of State. A small man, of feeble frame and rather mean appearance—an excellent clerk—a quick, irritable overseer, who had once been a soldier, like every American, and who had actually seen a little service, greatly unlike the majority of American colonels and generals, no one, even among the few who on this side of the Atlantic had ever heard his name, imagined he was going to prove either the good or the evil genius of his country—next to George Washington the most interesting person in its history as an independent State. We are not yet in full possession of his secret. We hear somewhat vaguely that his treachery to the Union extends over many years; that the secession was accomplished in his mind, like the murder of Cassio by Iago, long before it could be accomplished in fact. But why was he not found out? The officers of a whole army cannot be corrupted in secret—arms, artillery, ammunition, cannot be lodged in particular arsenals without the accounts at head-quarters showing it. Was the whole Government in the plot? Were twenty millions of people conspirators?

While waiting information, we are glad to have these authentic notes on the story of President Davis's life up to the breaking out of the civil war:—

"Davis, Jefferson, an American soldier and statesman, born June 3, 1808, in that part of Christian co., Ky., which now forms Todd co. Soon after his birth his father, Samuel Davis, a planter, who served during the revolutionary war in the mounted force of Georgia, removed with his family to Mississippi, and settled near Woodville, Wilkinson co. Young Davis received an academic education, and was sent at the usual age to Transylvania college, Ky., which he left in 1824 to enter the U.S. military academy at West Point, where he was graduated in 1828, and was appointed brevet second lieutenant. He remained in the army seven years and served as an infantry and staff officer on the north-west frontier in the Black Hawk war of 1831-32, with such distinction that, March 4, 1833, he was promoted to a 1st Lieutenancy of dragoons, in which capacity he was employed in 1834 in various expeditions against the Comanches, Pawnees, and other hostile Indian tribes. He resigned his commission, June 30, 1835, returned to Mississippi, and became a cotton planter, living in retirement till 1843, when he began to take an active part in politics on the democratic side, and in 1844 was chosen one of the presidential electors of Mississippi to vote for Polk and Dallas. In Nov. 1845, he was elected a representative in congress, and took his seat in December of that year. He bore a conspicuous part in the discussions of the session on the tariff, on the Oregon question, on military affairs, and particularly on the preparations for war against Mexico and on the organization of volunteer militia when called into the service of the United States. While in congress, in July, 1846, the 1st regiment of Mississippi volunteers, then enrolled for service in Mexico, elected him their colonel. He promptly left his seat at the house, and overtaking his regiment in New Orleans on its way to the seat of war, led it to re-enforce the army of Gen. Taylor on the Rio Grande. He was actively engaged in the attack and storming of Monterey,

Sept. 1846; was one of the commissioners for arranging the terms of the capitulation of that city; and highly distinguished himself in the Battle of Buena Vista, Feb. 23, 1847, where his regiment, attacked by an immensely superior force, maintained their ground for a long time unsupported, while Col. Davis himself, though severely wounded, remained in the saddle until the close of the action, and was complimented for his coolness and gallantry by the commander-in-chief in his despatch of March 6, 1847. At the expiration of the term of its enlistment, in July, 1847, the Mississippi regiment was ordered home; and Col. Davis, while on his return received at New Orleans a commission from President Polk as brigadier-general of volunteers, which he declined accepting on the ground that the constitution reserves to the states respectively the appointment of the officers of the militia, and that consequently their appointment by the federal executive is a violation of the rights of the states. In Aug. 1847, he was appointed by the governor of Mississippi, U.S., senator to fill a vacancy, and at the ensuing session of the state legislature, Jan. 11, 1848, was unanimously elected to the same office for the residue of the term, which expired March 4, 1851. In 1850 he was re-elected for the ensuing full term. In the senate he was chosen chairman of the committee on military affairs, and took a prominent part in the debates on the slavery question, in defence of the institutions and policy of the slave states, and was a zealous advocate of the doctrine of state rights. In Sept. 1851, he was nominated candidate for governor of Mississippi by the democratic party, in opposition to Henry S. Foote, the candidate of the union party. He resigned his seat in the senate on accepting the nomination, and was beaten in the election by a majority of 999 votes; a marked indication of his personal popularity in his own state, for at the 'convention election,' two months before, the union party had a majority of 7,500. After his defeat Col. Davis remained in retirement until the presidential contest of 1852, when he took the stump in behalf of Gen. Pierce in Mississippi, Tennessee, and Louisiana, where he rendered essential service to the democratic party. In 1853 he was appointed by President Pierce secretary of war, which post he held till the accession of President Buchanan in 1857. His administration of the war department was marked by ability and energy, and was highly popular with the army. He proposed or carried into effect, among other measures, the revision of the army regulations; the introduction of camels into America; the introduction of the light infantry or rifle system of tactics; the manufacture of rifled muskets and pistols and the use of the Minié ball; the addition of four regiments to the army; the augmentation of the sea-coast and frontier defences of the country; and the system of explorations in the western part of the continent for geographical purposes; and for the determination of the best route for a railroad to the Pacific Ocean. Having been previously re-elected on his retirement from the war department, Col. Davis re-entered the senate for the term ending March 4, 1863. In the sessions of the 35th congress he has been conspicuous in the discussions on the French Spoliations Bill, which he opposed, and on the Pacific railroad for the southern route, of which he is a zealous and most influential advocate."

A life of the President of the United States is also given. Mr. Lincoln is better known on this side of the Atlantic than Mr. Davis. Having been a candidate for the Presidency he has, of course, suffered from a couple of biographers—one hostile, one servile, in tone and statement. The following is more moderate and trustworthy than the 'Memoirs of Abraham Lincoln,' which we have had to review in former times; the declaration of opinion on Slavery at the close being very important in connexion with the recent proclamations of General Fremont in his military district:—

"Lincoln, Abraham, an American lawyer and statesman, born in a part of Hardin co., Ky., which is now included in Larue co., Feb. 12, 1809.

His ancestors, who were Quakers, went from Berks co., Penn., to Rockingham co., Va., and from there his grandfather Abraham removed with his family to Kentucky about 1782, and was killed by Indians in 1784. Thomas Lincoln, the father of Abraham, was born in Virginia, and in 1806 married Nancy Hanks, also a Virginian. In 1816 he removed with his family to what is now Spencer co., Ind., where Abraham, being large for his age, was put to work with an axe to assist in clearing away the forest, and for the next ten years was mostly occupied in hard labour on his father's farm. He went to school at intervals, amounting in the aggregate to about a year, which was all the school education he ever received. At the age of nineteen he made a trip to New Orleans as a hired hand upon a flat boat. In March, 1830, he removed with his father from Indiana, and settled in Macon co., Ill., where he helped to build a log cabin for the family home, and to make enough rails to fence ten acres of land. In the following year he hired himself at twelve dollars a month to assist in building a flat boat, and afterward in taking the boat to New Orleans. On his return from this voyage his employer put him in charge as clerk of a store and mill at New Salem, then in Sangamon, now in Menard co., Ill. On the breaking out of the Black Hawk war in 1832 he joined a volunteer company, and to his surprise was elected captain of it, a promotion which, he says, gave him more pleasure than any subsequent success in life. He served for three months in the campaign, and on his return was in the same year nominated a whig candidate for the legislature; but the county being democratic, he was beaten, though his own election precinct gave him 277 votes and only 7 against him. He next opened a country store, which was not prosperous, was appointed postmaster of New Salem, and now began to study law by borrowing from a neighbouring lawyer books which he took in the evening and returned in the morning. The surveyor of Sangamon co. offering to depute to him that portion of his work which was in his part of the county, Mr. Lincoln procured a compass and chain, and a treatise on surveying, and did the work. In 1834 he was elected to the legislature by the highest vote cast for any candidate, and was re-elected in 1836, 1838 and 1840. In 1836 he obtained a licence to practise law, and in April, 1837, removed to Springfield, and opened an office in partnership with Major John F. Stuart. He rose rapidly to distinction in his profession, and was especially eminent as an advocate in jury trials. He did not, however, withdraw from politics, but continued for many years a prominent leader of the whig party in Illinois. He was several times a candidate for presidential elector, and as such in 1844 he canvassed the entire state, together with part of Indiana, in behalf of Henry Clay, making almost daily speeches to large audiences. In 1846 he was elected a representative in congress from the central district of Illinois, and took his seat on the first Monday of Dec. 1847. In congress he voted for the reception of anti-slavery memorials and petitions; for motions by Mr. Giddings for committees to inquire into the constitutionality of slavery in the district of Columbia, and the expediency of abolishing the slave trade in the district; for various resolutions prohibiting slavery in the territory to be acquired from Mexico. He voted forty-two times in favour of the Wilmot proviso. On Jan. 16, 1849, he offered to the house a scheme for abolishing slavery in the district by compensating the slave-owners from the treasury of the United States, provided a majority of citizens of the district should vote for the acceptance of the proposed act. He opposed the annexation of Texas, but voted for the Loan Bill to enable the government to defray the expenses of the Mexican war. He voted also in favour of river and harbour improvements, in favour of a protective tariff, and of selling the public lands at the lowest cost price. He was a member of the 31st national convention of 1848, and advocated the nomination of Gen. Taylor. In 1849 he was a candidate for the U.S. senate, but the legislature was democratic, and elected Gen. Shields. After the expiration of his congressional term, Mr. Lincoln applied himself to

his profession till the repeal of the Missouri compromise called him again into the political arena. He entered with energy into the canvass which was to decide the choice of a U.S. senator in place of Gen. Shields, and it was mainly to his exertions that the triumph of the republicans and the election of Judge Trumbull to the senate was attributed. At the republican national convention in 1856, by which Col. Fremont was nominated for president, the Illinois delegation ineffectually urged Mr. Lincoln's nomination for the vice-presidency. On June 2, 1858, the republican state convention met at Springfield, and unanimously nominated him as candidate for U.S. senator in opposition to Mr. Douglas. The two candidates canvassed the state together, speaking on the same day at the same place. The debate was conducted with eminent ability on both sides, and excited universal interest. In the course of this debate Mr. Lincoln said, in reply to questions from his antagonist: 'I do not now, nor ever did, stand in favour of the unconditional repeal of the fugitive slave law. I do not now, nor ever did, stand pledged against the admission of any more slave states into the Union. I do not stand pledged against the admission of a new state into the Union with such a constitution as the people of the state may see fit to make. I do not stand to-day pledged to the abolition of slavery in the district of Columbia. I do not stand pledged to the prohibition of the slave trade between the different states. I am impliedly, if not expressly, pledged to a belief in the right and duty of congress to prohibit slavery in all the United States territories.' He said further, in explanation of these answers: 'In regard to the fugitive slave law, I have never hesitated to say, and I do not now hesitate to say, that I think, under the constitution of the United States, the people of the southern states are entitled to a congressional fugitive slave law. Having said that, I have had nothing to say in regard to the existing fugitive slave law, further than that I think it should have been framed so as to be free from some of the objections that pertain to it, without lessening its efficiency. And, inasmuch as we are not now in an agitation in regard to an alteration or modification of that law, I would not be the man to introduce it as a new subject of agitation upon the general question of slavery. In regard to the other question, of whether I am pledged to the admission of any more slave states into the Union, I state to you very frankly that I would be exceedingly sorry ever to be put in a position of having to pass upon that question. I should be exceedingly glad to know that there would never be another slave state admitted into the Union; but I must add that, if slavery shall be kept out of the territories during the territorial existence of any one given territory, and then the people shall, having a fair chance and a clear field, when they come to adopt their constitution, do such an extraordinary thing as to adopt a slave constitution, uninfluenced by the actual presence of the institution among them, I see no alternative, if we own the country, but to admit them into the Union. In regard to the abolition of slavery in the district of Columbia, I have my mind very distinctly made up. I should be exceedingly glad to see slavery abolished in the district of Columbia. I believe that Congress possesses the constitutional power to abolish it. Yet as a member of congress I should not with my present views be in favour of endeavouring to abolish slavery in the district of Columbia, unless it would be upon these conditions: 1, that the abolition should be gradual; 2, that it should be on a vote of the majority of qualified voters in the district; and 3, that compensation should be made to unwilling owners. With these three conditions, I confess I would be exceedingly glad to see Congress abolish slavery in the district of Columbia, and, in the language of Henry Clay, "sweep from our capital that foul blot upon our nation." The result of the election was a vote of 125,275 for the republican candidates, who were pledged to the election of Mr. Lincoln, 121,190 for the Douglas candidates, and 5,071 for the Lecompton candidates. Mr. Lincoln had thus a majority of more than 4,000 on the popular vote over Mr. Douglas; but the latter

was elected senator by the legislature, in which his supporters had a majority of 8 on joint ballot. On May 16, 1860, the republican national convention met at Chicago, and on May 18, began to ballot for a candidate for President. The whole number of votes was 465—necessary to a choice, 233. On the first ballot Mr. Seward received 173½, Mr. Lincoln 102, Mr. Cameron 50½, and Mr. Bates 48, while the rest were scattered among several candidates. On the second ballot Mr. Seward had 184½, and Mr. Lincoln 181. On the third ballot Mr. Lincoln had 354, Mr. Seward 110½, Mr. Dayton 1, and Judge McLean ½ a vote. The nomination of Mr. Lincoln was subsequently made unanimous on motion of the chairman of the New York delegation."

General Fremont's proclamation against slavery has excited the fiercest passions in America, and the highest hopes among a certain class of politicians in Europe. It is the proclamation of a principle. General Fremont has been already a candidate for the Presidency, and it is understood that he is still a favourite with the Republicans. Many believe him to be "the Coming Man." It is certain that he has put the question of what they are fighting for clearly before his countrymen. It is certain that, in doing so, he has acted without the formal sanction of the cabinet—as republican generals are apt to do in time of war. Will he be able to carry his point against the Lincolnite politicians, and change the war of State Rights into a war of Abolition? That is, perhaps, the most momentous question now before the world. The last despatches talk of his being disavowed, superseded, arrested. We doubt the correctness of this news. But should it be true that Mr. Lincoln, afraid of raising such an issue as the liberation of four millions of negroes, has chosen to break with the republican party, and to punish its champion—what then? The republican party is the party with strong convictions, the fanatical and fighting party, the descendants of the Ironsides. Will they submit to carry on a mere commercial and political war? Will their leader submit? Those who want light on this question will be glad to seek it in the story of General Fremont's past life as here briefly recorded:—

"Fremont, John Charles, an American explorer, born in Savannah, Ga., Jan. 21, 1813. His father was a Frenchman who had settled in Norfolk, Va., where he supported himself by teaching his native language. His mother, whose maiden name was Anne Beverley Whiting, was the daughter of an opulent and prominent Virginian, connected by marriage with the Washington family. She was left an orphan at an early age, and when seventeen years old was persuaded by her relatives to marry Major Pryor, a rich and gouty gentleman forty-five years her senior. This union was childless and unhappy, and at the end of twelve years was terminated by a divorce which the friends of both parties combined to procure from the legislature. Major Pryor soon married his housekeeper, and Mrs. Pryor married Mr. Fremont. He died in 1818. The widow, with three infant children, settled in Charleston, S.C. At the age of fifteen John Charles entered the junior class of Charleston College. For some time he stood high in college, and made remarkable attainments in mathematics. 'But about this time,' says Mr. Bigelow, one of his biographers, 'he became acquainted with a young West Indian girl, whose raven hair and soft black eyes interfered sadly with his studies.' His inattention and frequent absences at length caused his expulsion from the college. After this event he obtained employment as a private teacher of mathematics, and took charge at the same time of an evening school. In 1833 he obtained the position of teacher of mathematics on board of the U.S. sloop of war *Natchez*, which was then in the port of Charleston, from which she sailed on a cruise to the coast of South America. Fremont was absent in her for more than two years, and

on his return to Charleston received from the College which had expelled him the degrees of Bachelor and Master of Arts. Shortly afterwards he passed successfully a rigorous examination at Baltimore for the post of Professor of Mathematics in the Navy, and was appointed to the frigate Independence; but he soon resolved to quit the sea, and engaged himself as a surveyor and railroad engineer on a line between Charleston and Augusta, Ga. Subsequently he assisted in the survey of the railroad line from Charleston to Cincinnati, and particularly in the exploration of the mountain passes between South Carolina and Tennessee. He was engaged in this work till the autumn of 1837, when, in consequence of its suspension, he accompanied Capt. Williams of the U.S. army in a military reconnaissance of the mountainous Cherokee country in Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee. In anticipation of hostilities with the Indians this survey was rapidly made in the depth of winter, and was Fremont's first experience of a campaign amid mountain snows. In 1838-9 he accompanied M. Nicollet, a Frenchman, and a distinguished man of science, in explorations of the country between the Missouri and the British line. These explorations were made under the authority of the Government, and, while engaged in them in 1838, Fremont received from President Van Buren, under date of July 7, a commission as Second Lieutenant in the Corps of Topographical Engineers. While at Washington in 1840, employed in the preparation of the report of these expeditions, Fremont became acquainted with Miss Jessie Benton, a daughter of Col. Thomas H. Benton, at that time a senator from Missouri. An engagement was formed, but as the lady was only fifteen years of age, her parents, notwithstanding their high personal regard for Fremont, objected to the match, and suddenly, probably through the potent influence of Col. Benton, the young officer received from the War Department a peremptory order to make an examination of the river Des Moines upon the western frontier. The survey was rapidly executed, and shortly after his return from this duty the lovers were secretly married, Oct. 19, 1841. In the following year Fremont projected a geographical survey of the entire territory of the United States from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean, the feasibility of an overland communication between the two sides of the Continent being a leading idea in his scheme of explorations. He accordingly applied to the War Department for employment on this service, and having received, at his own suggestion, instructions to explore the Rocky Mountains, and particularly to examine the South Pass, he left Washington, May 2, 1842, and on June 10 began his expedition. * * His Report of the expedition was laid before Congress in the winter of 1842-3. It attracted great attention both at home and abroad. It was praised by Humboldt in his 'Aspects of Nature,' and the London *Athenæum* pronounced it one of the most perfect productions of its kind. Immediately after the publication of his Report, Fremont planned a second expedition of a much more comprehensive character than the first. He determined to extend his explorations across the continent, and to survey the then unknown region lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. In May, 1843, he commenced his journey with thirty-nine men, and, in pursuance of his instructions, proceeded up the Kansas River far enough to ascertain its character, and then crossed over to the Platte, which he ascended to its source in the mountains, where the Sweet Water, one of its tributaries, springs from the neighbourhood of the South Pass. He reached the Pass on Aug. 8, went through it, and saw the head waters of the Colorado flowing toward the Gulf of California. On Sept. 6, after travelling over 1,700 miles, he came in sight of the Great Salt Lake, of which no accurate account had ever been given, and of which very vague and erroneous notions were entertained. His investigations effected important rectifications in our geographical knowledge of this portion of the continent, and had subsequently a powerful influence in promoting the settlement of Utah and of the Pacific States. From the Salt Lake he proceeded to the

upper tributaries of the Columbia River, whose valley he descended till, on Nov. 4, he reached Fort Vancouver, near the mouth of the Columbia. On Nov. 10, he set out on his return to the States. He selected a south-east route, leading from the lower part of the Columbia to the Upper Colorado, through an almost unknown region, crossed by high and rugged mountain chains. He soon encountered deep snows, which impeded his progress and forced him to descend into the great basin, and presently found himself in the depth of winter in a desert, with the prospect before him of death to his whole party from cold and hunger. By astronomical observation he found that he was in the latitude of the bay of San Francisco; but between him and the valleys of California was a range of mountains covered with snows which the Indians declared no man could cross, and over which no reward could induce them to attempt to guide him. Fremont boldly undertook the passage without a guide, and accomplished it in forty days, reaching Sutter's Fort on the Sacramento early in March, with his men reduced almost to skeletons, and with only thirty-three out of sixty-seven horses and mules remaining, and those that survived so weak and thin that they could barely walk while led along. He resumed his journey March 24, and, proceeding southward, skirted the western base of the Sierra Nevada, crossed that range through a gap, entered the great basin, and again visited the Salt Lake, from which, through the South Pass, he returned to Kansas in July, 1844, after an absence of fourteen months, during the greater part of which he was never out of sight of snow. The Reports of this expedition occupied in their preparation the remainder of 1844. Fremont was brevetted Captain in Jan. 1845, and in the spring of that year he set out on a third expedition to explore the great basin and the maritime region of Oregon and California. The summer was spent in examining the head waters of the rivers whose source is in the dividing ridge between the Pacific and the Mississippi Valley, and in October he encamped on the shores of the Great Salt Lake. From thence he proceeded to explore the Sierra Nevada, which chain he crossed again in the dead of winter with a few men to obtain supplies from California for his party, with whom, after perilous adventures among the mountains and some successful encounters with hostile Indians, he made his way into the valley of the San Joaquin, where he left his men to recruit, and went himself to Monterey, which was at that time the capital of California, to obtain from the Mexican authorities permission to proceed with his exploration. Permission was granted, but was almost immediately revoked, and he was peremptorily ordered to leave the country without delay. Fremont as peremptorily refused to comply. His men, exhausted by the hardships they had suffered, and destitute of supplies and animals, were in no condition to repossess the mountains and the deserts from which they had just emerged. The Mexican Governor, General Castro, mustered the forces of the province and prepared to attack the Americans, who were only sixty-two in number. Fremont took up a strong position on the Hawk's Peak, a mountain thirty miles from Monterey, built a rude fort of felled trees, hoisted the American flag, and, having plenty of ammunition, resolved to defend himself. He wrote to the American Consul at Monterey, in reply to a private message, March 10, 1846: 'We have in nowise done wrong to the people or the authorities of this country, and if we are hemmed in and assaulted here, we will die, every man of us, under the flag of our country.' The Mexican General formed a camp with a large force of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, in the plain immediately below the position held by the Americans, whom he hourly threatened to attack. On the evening of the 4th day of the siege, Fremont, tired of inaction, withdrew with his party, and proceeded towards the San Joaquin. The fires were still burning in his deserted camp when a messenger arrived from General Castro to propose a cessation of hostilities. Without further molestation, Fremont pursued his way northward through the valley of the Sacramento into Oregon. Near Tlamath Lake, on May 9, he met a party in search

of him with despatches from Washington, directing him to watch over the interests of the United States in California, there being reason to apprehend that the province would be transferred to Great Britain. There was also reason to believe that General Castro intended to destroy the American settlements on the Sacramento. Fremont promptly retraced his steps to California. General Castro was already marching against the settlements. The settlers rose in arms, flocked to Fremont's camp, and under his leadership the result was that, in less than a month, as Col. Benton says in his 'Thirty Years' View,' 'All the northern part of California was freed from Mexican authority, independence proclaimed, the flag of independence raised, Castro flying to the south, the American settlers saved from destruction, and the British party in California counteracted and broken up in all their schemes.' On July 4, Fremont was elected Governor of California by the American settlers; and on the 10th of that month he learned that Commodore Sloat, who commanded the U.S. squadron on the coast, had taken possession of Monterey. Fremont proceeded to join the naval forces, and reached Monterey with his 160 mounted riflemen on the 19th. Commodore Stockton about the same time arrived at Monterey with the frigate Congress, and took command of the squadron with authority from Washington to conquer California."

A quarrel arose between two superior officers, each of whom had power over Fremont. Fremont obeyed the one who was subsequently disavowed at Washington, and for this technical offence he was tried by a court-martial, which found him guilty of mutiny, disobedience of the lawful command of a superior officer, and conduct to the prejudice of good order and military discipline, and sentenced him to be dismissed from the service.—

"A majority of the members of the court recommended him to the clemency of President Polk. The President refused to confirm the verdict of mutiny, but approved the rest of the verdict and the sentence, of which, however, he immediately remitted the penalty. Fremont promptly declined to avail himself of the President's pardon, alleging as a reason: 'I do not feel conscious of having done anything to merit the finding of the court; and this being the case, I cannot, by accepting the clemency of the President, admit the justice of the decision against me.' He accordingly forthwith resigned his commission as lieutenant-colonel. The friends of Col. Fremont and a large portion of the public considered this court-martial and the charges that led to it as an attempt, in the language of one of his biographers, 'instigated by professional and personal jealousy to break down the character and to ruin the prospects of an aspiring and deserving rival.' On Oct. 14, 1848, Fremont started upon a fourth expedition across the continent, at his own expense. With 33 men and 120 mules he made his way along the upper waters of the Rio Grande through the country of the Utahs, Apaches, Comanches, and other Indian tribes, then at war with the United States. His object was to find a practicable passage by this route to California. In attempting to cross the great Sierra, covered with snow, his guide lost his way, and Fremont's party encountered horrible suffering from cold and hunger, a portion of them being driven to cannibalism to sustain life. All of his animals and one-third of his men perished, and he was forced to retrace his steps to Santa Fé. Undaunted by this disaster, he gathered around him another band of 30 men, and after a long search discovered a secure route, which conducted him eventually to the Sacramento in the spring of 1849. He now determined to settle in California, where in 1847 he had bought the Mariposas estate, a very large tract of land, containing rich gold mines. His title to this estate was contested, but after a long litigation it was decided in his favour in 1855 by the supreme court of the United States. In 1849 he received from President Taylor the appointment of commissioner to run the boundary line between the United States and Mexico. Regarding this appointment as intended to signify Gen. Taylor's disapproval of

the court-martial which had dismissed him from the army, he accepted it to show his sense of the value of the good opinion of that distinguished soldier. The legislature of California, which met in Dec. 1849, elected him on the first ballot one of the two senators to represent the new state in the senate of the United States. He consequently resigned his commissionership, and departed at once for Washington. * * He voted against Mr. Seward's amendment providing for the abolition of slavery in the district of Columbia, which, however, only received five votes; he voted against an amendment providing that if a free person in the district of Columbia should induce a slave to run away, or should harbour a fugitive slave, he should be imprisoned in the penitentiary five years; he voted for the bill suppressing the slave trade in the district; he also voted against an amendment authorizing the corporations of the district to prohibit free negroes within their limits. Fremont returned to California in the first steamer that sailed after the adjournment of Congress; he was prevented from returning to Washington next session by a severe attack of fever contracted upon the iethmus. In the state election of 1851, in California, the party which had opposed the introduction of slavery, and had placed the proviso against it in the state constitution, was defeated. As Fremont was one of the leaders of this party, he failed of re-election to the senate, after 142 ballotings in the state legislature. The next two years he devoted to his private affairs, and visited Europe in 1852, where he spent a year, and was received with distinction by many eminent men of letters and of science. In 1850, while he was in the senate, Baron Humboldt, on behalf of the King of Prussia, had sent him 'the great golden medal for progress in the sciences.' At the same time the Geographical Society of Berlin elected him an honorary member. A few months earlier the Royal Geographical Society of London had awarded him the 'founder's medal' for his 'pre-eminent services in promoting the cause of geographical science.' While in Europe he learned that Congress had made an appropriation for the survey of three routes from the Mississippi valley to the Pacific. He immediately returned to the United States for the purpose of fitting out a fifth expedition on his own account to complete the survey of the route he had taken on his fourth expedition. He left Paris in June, 1853, and in September was already on his march across the continent. The result of this fifth expedition was satisfactory. He found passes through the mountains on the line of lat. 38° and 39° N., and reached California in safety after enduring great hardships. For fifty days his party lived on horseflesh, and for forty-eight hours at a time were without food of any kind. In the spring of 1855 Fremont with his family took up his residence in New York, for the purpose of preparing for publication the narrative of his last expedition. His name now began to be mentioned in connexion with the Presidency by those who were combining to act against the democratic party on the basis of opposition to the extension of slavery. In April, 1856, he was invited to attend a meeting in New York of those who opposed the Kansas policy of President Pierce. In his letter of reply he said: 'I heartily concur in all movements which have for their object to repair the mischiefs arising from the violation of good faith in the repeal of the Missouri compromise. I am opposed to slavery in the abstract and upon principle, sustained and made habitual by long-settled convictions. While I feel inflexible in the belief that it ought not to be interfered with where it exists, under the shield of state sovereignty, I am as inflexibly opposed to its extension on this continent beyond its present limits.' The republican national convention, which met at Philadelphia, June 17, 1856, deeming this letter satisfactory, nominated Fremont for the Presidency by a vote of 359 to 196 for John M'Lean, on an informal ballot. On the first formal ballot Fremont was unanimously nominated. He accepted the nomination in a letter dated July 8, 1856, in which he expressed himself strongly against the extension of slavery and in favour of free labour. A few days after the Philadelphia convention adjourned, a national American convention

at New York also nominated Fremont for the Presidency. He accepted their support in a letter dated June 30, in which he referred them for an exposition of his views to his forthcoming letter accepting the republican nomination. After a most spirited and exciting contest, the presidential election resulted in the choice of Mr. Buchanan by 174 electoral votes from 19 states, while Fremont received 114 votes from 11 states, including the 6 New England states, New York, Ohio, Michigan, Iowa, and Wisconsin. Maryland gave her 8 electoral votes for Mr. Fillmore. The popular vote for Fremont was 1,341,514; for Buchanan, 1,838,232; for Fillmore, 884,707. In 1858 Mr. Fremont returned to California, where he has since resided."

The war found him ready; and a great command on the Mississippi places him in the foremost rank of American personages. His plans for a descent of that river to New Orleans have been the subject of much discussion; but still more important to the issues of war is the proclamation against slavery which he has recently put forth. General Fremont, at all events, knows what he is fighting for; and whatever the professional politicians may think about his wisdom in proclaiming it, the majority of men feel a certain relief from their uncertainties in his declarations, and the partisans of his views receive them with exuberant delight.

Lieutenant-General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K.B., 1793—1801: a Memoir. By his Son, James Lord Dunfermline. (Edinburgh, Edmonston & Douglas.)

Sir Ralph Abercromby may fairly be numbered amongst those men who, unfortunate in their lives, are fortunate in their deaths. A simple man, devoid of genius, but of inflexible honesty, stainless morality, high principle and lofty aim, he represented, in an eminent degree, those qualities which have contributed far more than splendid and subtle intellect to the formation of our national greatness. Of gentle, but not patrician, descent, from the commencement to the close of his life he found the ruling principle of his conduct in the motto proudly borne by his descendants, *Vive ut vivas*—Live so that you may live. He would do no service, however honourable it might be in the estimation of the world, which his conscience did not thoroughly approve; and he would wear no honour which was not, according to his chivalric standard, a well-earned acknowledgment of arduous labour and of sterling benefits conferred on the country he loved with patriotic ardour. Such a man finds many obstacles to rapid success. On the outbreak of the American war, the liberal principles inherited from his grandfather, Alexander Abercromby, of Tulliboddy, the representative of Clackmannan county in the Union Parliament, and a bitter foe of the Stuarts, caused him to disapprove the colonial policy of the ministry, and prevented him from taking an active part in the war that terminated in favour of the United States. Born in 1734, and gazetted to a cornetcy in the Dragoon Guards, he was debared by conscientious scruples from active service, with the exception of a brief period when he acted as a subaltern officer under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, till 1793, when he took the command of a brigade in the campaign in Flanders, under the Duke of York. A man who could, from such motives, consent to wait for distinguished employment till he was nearly sixty, may be justly pointed to as an example of that independence and firmness which are the most valuable elements of the British character. But when he had been advanced to a position of prominent command, and had

entered on the eight years' career that terminated in glory, the genius of ill luck still seemed bent on accompanying him. It was his misfortune, until he was sent to the Mediterranean, either to participate in undertakings which he did not approve, and which were destined to meet ignominious conclusions, or to hold distasteful command, or to render services which subjected him to misconstruction, and almost to disgrace. In the campaign in Flanders, his chief distinction was won by his masterly management of a disastrous retreat, "the hideous details of which," to use the language of his son and biographer, "have been so often given to the public that it would be painful and superfluous to repeat them, and the more so as nothing new can be added." His command in the West Indies from 1795 to 1797, though it eminently conduced to the prestige and power of Great Britain, was so irksome and disagreeable that he begged to be released from its complicated duties. His command in Ireland, from 1797 to 1798, where his prudent energy roused against him a storm of obloquy, and earned for him the condemnation of Pitt, terminated in a resignation which was voluntary only in form. His expedition to Holland in 1799, opening with the brilliant success of the Helder, for which he alone was to be credited, terminated in a humiliation for which he was in no way responsible. In the following year his expedition to Cadiz, owing to circumstances over which he had no control, was another unfortunate failure. But the time had at length come when he was to achieve that highest glory of which he had always been ambitious, and in which his exertions were to find a proper end. In 1801, he took the command of the expedition sent to dispossess the French in Egypt, and died on board Lord Keith's flag-ship, the "Foudroyant," seven days after he was struck down by a spent ball, at the battle of Alexandria.

A commander meeting his death on the field of battle receives the fullest possible measure of that sympathy which generous natures feel for any man who expires in the discharge of his duty. If his eyes close on the defeat of his troops, the faults and misfortunes of the day are forgiven in consideration of his forfeited life. But when he dies in the arms of victory, he instantly becomes the object of his country's gratitude and the idol of its affection. He is the centre of the regret felt by survivors for the brave who have fallen; in the same way that, had he escaped the perils of the contest, he would have been the chief object of their acclamations. Nelson's cry was "A Peerage or Westminster Abbey!" A nation has its honours for the dead as well as its rewards for the living; and it was in the former that the services of Sir Ralph Abercromby, K.B., the hero of Alexandria, met their fitting recognition.

The motive which induced the late Lord Dunfermline, Sir Ralph Abercromby's third son, to construct the present Memoir of his distinguished father would have been a matter of conjecture, had the author not candidly avowed it in his introductory chapter. "So many lives," says his Lordship, "of those officers who distinguished themselves in the Army and Navy during the protracted war with France have been written, that it has repeatedly been remarked as an omission that no authoritative account of the character and services of Sir Ralph Abercromby had ever been given to the public." In this is to be found the author's object. He did not enter on his task, because the public required further information relative to Sir Ralph's services, for he had no particulars to give about them that had not for years been matter of history. His aim was simply to

render his father those biographic honours which so many of his illustrious contemporaries had received. Regarded in this light, as a tribute of filial love, the Memoir commands a degree of respect to which its purely literary merits and historic value by no means entitle it. It is brief, but tedious; meagre, and yet verbose. The narrative is cumbered with extracts from official correspondence, which, besides being in some places ungrammatical and in other places inexplicably involved, tell the reader nothing worthy of remembrance that he did not very well know before. But Lord Dunfermline's worst fault, as a biographer, is the diplomatic coldness of his style. He seems to have written under a nervous fear of entertaining his readers, and an excessive dread of treating his subject with vulgar familiarity; the consequence of his timidity being, that scenes, which ought to have been painted with the vigour and brightness of strong feeling, are washed in with a neutral tint of well-bred propriety.

The following passage is a fair specimen of the way in which his Lordship tells an anecdote:—

"An able and distinguished Scotch nobleman, who had taken a warm and prominent part in defence of the French Revolution, happened to come to Edinburgh, where he was deserted and avoided by most of his former acquaintances and friends. Sir Ralph, thinking that such intolerance was calculated to be very mischievous in its consequences, and that exclusion from society was not justified by differences of opinion on political subjects, marked his disapproval of this conduct by doing an act of courtesy to a nobleman with whom he had no previous acquaintance, and the object of which could not be mistaken under the circumstances in which it was tendered. The compliment was strongly felt, and always kindly remembered, by the individual to whom it was paid."

In the year 1773, Sir Ralph Abercromby was returned to Parliament by the county of Clackmannan, the interest of Sir Laurence Dundas turning the hotly-contested election in his favour. Using the standard of the present day, the reader may find it difficult to appreciate the conduct of the successful candidate, who disdained to vote against his principles to support Sir Laurence in the House of Commons, and yet could feel it incumbent on his honour that he should vote against his principles in Stirling county to support Sir Laurence's son.—

"Sir Laurence Dundas, who was at that time desirous of acquiring political power in Scotland, decided the contest by exercising his influence in favour of Sir Ralph, under the expectation that by so doing he became entitled to control the votes in Parliament of the candidate whom he supported. There was not the very slightest foundation for this expectation on the part of Sir Laurence; and, accordingly, Sir Ralph resented his interference, and a breach between them ensued. Although Sir Ralph resisted the assumed right of control, he did not forget the obligation which he owed to Sir Laurence for his support. He repaid it, by uniformly voting for the son of Sir Laurence in his repeated and severe contests for the county of Stirling, which were so close as to make a single vote of real value, and that at a time when *there was no agreement in their political opinions*, and when Sir Ralph was strongly urged by personal friends to take a different part."

The following story of Sir Ralph's conduct on his passage to the West Indies has been, with variations, told of many persons—amongst whom Jeremy Bentham is one:—

"The Glory, in which Sir Ralph sailed with Admiral Christian, kept at sea as long as possible, but was ultimately obliged, after a vain struggle of seven weeks, and after having been exposed to the very greatest danger, to return to port. This was of course most disappointing and disheartening to Sir Ralph, but Admiral Christian in writing to

a friend remarks, 'that his demeanour on this occasion was so calm and composed, that it was an example to be admired and followed by all who witnessed it.' The following anecdote is of no importance, but as it has been preserved by others as characteristic, I have inserted it. At a moment when the Glory was known to be in the most imminent danger, the confidential servant of Sir Ralph rushed into the cabin where he was with Admiral Christian, and addressing him said, 'We are going to be drowned.'—'Very well,' replied Sir Ralph, 'you go to bed.'"

On his return from the expedition to Holland, Sir Ralph was offered a peerage, but he declined it, being, as Lord Dunfermline asserts, "unwilling that his name should be permanently associated with a service of which the result had been so humiliating to the country." He displayed similar good feeling in declining a grant of Carib lands, in acknowledgment of his services in Holland:—

"A rumour having reached Sir Ralph that there was an intention to act on the suggestion of the King, with respect to a grant of Carib lands, he, on the 30th of November, 1799, addressed the following letter to Mr. Dundas:—'It has been hinted to me that in consideration of the services I may have done in the way of my profession I am to receive a grant of Carib lands, or a sum of money arising from them. If it is thought that I am deserving of any mark of public favour, it is from the public alone that I can receive it. I am not a beggar or a covetous person to ask private honours or private grants. Good God, sir, what opinion should I have of myself, were I to profit from the crimes and forfeitures of such a set of miscreants as the Caribs! I hope I shall trouble you no more on my services or their rewards. As long as my mind and body remain entire, I am bound to the service of my country.'"

The best written passage in the entire volume is that which describes the removal of Sir Ralph from the field of battle,—the care shown by the prostrate commander for the soldier's blanket giving a touch of true pathos to the scene:—

"It has never been ascertained at what precise time Sir Ralph received the wound which proved to be mortal. Colonel Abercromby states that his tent being at some distance from that of Sir Ralph, he did not see him when the first alarm of the French attack was given, and did not afterwards meet him until about break of day, in the rear of the reserve, when the principal attack had been made, and he then gave him orders relative to the movements of the troops. Colonel Abercromby did not afterwards see Sir Ralph until near the close of the action, when he found him in a small work about the centre of the line, where there were some guns firing on the enemy. Colonel Abercromby observed that the clothes of Sir Ralph were cut, and that there were marks of blood on them. He asked if he was wounded, and he answered 'Yes, by a spent ball, but it gives me no uneasiness,' but he added that he felt considerable pain in his breast and side from a blow he had received from a French dragoon who rode against him, when the cavalry broke in on the right. General Ludlow and Colonel Abercromby urged in the strongest manner that his wound should be examined, but he persevered in refusing, assigning as his reason, that there were many poor fellows worse wounded than he was, and that the surgeons were more usefully employed in attending to them. Sir Ralph dismounted, and walked about with apparent ease, watching earnestly the manœuvres of the enemy. After an interval of half an hour, he complained of being very faint, and sat down on the ground, with his back to the parapet of the redoubt. General Ludlow then sent for one of the surgeons of the Guards, who were nearest at hand, but only a mate could be found. The mate looked at the wound, and found that the ball had entered the thigh, and Sir Ralph was again pressed to leave the field, but he would not do so until the firing had ceased, and the enemy had completely retired. As soon as the firing ceased, Sir Ralph

was removed to the tent of Colonel Abercromby, where the wound was again examined by a skilful surgeon of the Guards, who, not finding the ball where he expected, advised that Sir Ralph should be carried on board a ship, to which he at once assented, and he was conveyed on board the *Foudroyant*, Lord Keith's flag-ship. Sir Ralph was placed on a bier, and an officer who was present took a soldier's blanket, and was adjusting it under his head as a pillow, when Sir Ralph asked, 'What is that you are placing under my head?' The officer replied that it was only a soldier's blanket, on which Sir Ralph said, 'Only a soldier's blanket! a soldier's blanket is of great consequence, and you must send me the name of the soldier to whom it belongs, that it may be returned to him.' This was accordingly done, and the blanket was duly restored, Sir Ralph himself having given directions to that effect. Sir Ralph would not allow his son to accompany him to the beach, but frequently desired him to go to General Hutchinson, and to attend to his duty. Although the ball could not be extracted, sanguine hopes of recovery were entertained. On the 26th of March, the symptoms caused anxiety, but Sir Ralph rallied, and during the 27th he conversed with his son on various points connected with the public service with much composure, but in that night he became feverish, and at eleven o'clock on the night of the 28th of March he expired without pain or suffering."

Sir Ralph Abercromby, in his boyhood, was educated first at the Jacobite school at Alloa, and afterwards at Rugby, where he remained until eighteen years of age. He then became a student in the University of Edinburgh, and in 1754 went to Leipzig to prosecute the study of the Civil Law, in order that he might fit himself for the Scotch Bar, of which his father and his grandfather lived to become the oldest members. It was not till he returned from Leipzig that he relinquished the plan of entering the legal profession.

The Letters and Works of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. Edited by Lord Wharncliffe. Third Edition, with Illustrative Notes and a New Memoir by W. Moy Thomas. Vol. II. (Bohn.)

Those only who shall read the Letters of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu by the light of Mr. Thomas's Memoir will be able to understand and do justice to her character. The genius of Pope gave currency and permanency to his malignant inventions; and yet they have been, we suspect, little more damaging than the misinterpretations of his commentators. Pope knew that blows struck at random would not hurt; but the commentators assume that he was always striking at random—beating the air,—leaving the public to interpret between him and his hate; and that one-half the vile women, real or imaginary, hinted at or described by Pope were meant for Lady M. W. Montagu. She was "Sappho," of course, although Pope had half-a-dozen Sapphos, and some of them before he had ever set eyes on Lady Mary. She was Phryne and Fufidia, and Artimesia and Flavia, and Chloe and Avidien's wife. According to the interpretation of one or other, she appears in four different characters in one disgraceful, but unacknowledged, poem. There "Lady Mary" opens the ball with "Lord Fanny." In the next page she figures as Fufidia; then she is directly named as "M—ue"; and lastly, she is the shameless "Lady M." Surely these could not all represent the same woman?—indeed, "Lady M." was understood by their contemporaries to have been Lady Mohun, and anecdotes were current and are recorded of the disgraceful fact to which Pope alluded, but to which, though very apt to our purpose, we cannot more particularly refer. A careful and critical examination of all the several characters

under which she is believed to have been depicted by Pope, and of the anecdotes of Walpole, would, we are convinced, prove the malignity of the poet, the blind guess-work of the commentators, and the credulous folly of the clever Horace. Pinkerton records that Walpole told him "Lady Wortley Montagu was a playfellow of mine when both were children: she was always a dirty little thing." Whether this were a dream of the one or the other is of little consequence; the anecdote made its impression on the public mind, and remained uncontradicted until some one pointed out its absurdity by directing attention to the fact, that Lady Mary was a married woman of twenty-seven or twenty-eight years of age when Horace Walpole was born. Then, again, we were told that she was the great friend of "Moll Skerrett" the mistress of Sir Robert Walpole, and some of the Letters written during the embassy were addressed in Dallaway's edition "to Miss Skerrett." Mr. Thomas has now shown that the letters have no address; that they were probably written to Miss Smith, the daughter of the Speaker, and that Lady Mary did not at that time even know Miss Skerrett. So we have the well-known story of Lady Mary having visited the interior of the seraglio, at the critical moment when the Sultan, according to the custom popularly believed in, was about to select one of his wives by "throwing a handkerchief." The scandalous tale concludes with the significant fact that Lady Mary's son was born during her sojourn at Constantinople "in the spring of the year 1718." Curious indeed! and when we look at the portrait of that son in after-life, an engraving of which is prefixed to this volume, and observe his lofty turban, his flowing beard, and complete Turkish costume in which he delighted to appear, the scandal does seem to be but too probable. Unfortunately, however, Lady Mary never was and never could have been inside the seraglio; and the son was born in England three years before the mother set out on her travels. So again we have the story told by Malone on the authority of Col. Erskine, of M. Rémond, with the addition that "Lady W. Montague had two children by the Frenchman alluded to, and this amour was the cause of her being separated from her husband." Now, as Mr. Thomas has shown by the letters of the "French wit" himself, she never saw him, except in the brief period of her passing through Paris on her way home with her husband from Constantinople in 1718, and again for a brief period in London in 1720, when the Frenchman, intent upon speculations in South Sea stock, complained that he had little reason to be satisfied with her, having found English ladies "incapable of friendship and of love." At all events, the French "wit" took his final departure for Paris in 1720, and Lady Mary lived with her husband for nearly twenty years afterwards.

Then we have Walpole's "obscure history," as he calls it, of the life she led when in Italy, to which we alluded in our former notice. The poor lady was suffering when she left England, and continued to suffer more or less for the rest of her life. Within two years of her residence in Italy the physicians twice despaired of her. They recommended her to try the waters of Lovere, and she was removed there at great risk. At that obscure place she partially recovered, and there she continued to reside for many years. Let us show, not in an "obscure history," founded on malicious reports, but in a veritable history given in a letter to her daughter, what was really her daily life:—

"I have been these six weeks, and still am, at my dairy-house which joins to my garden. I believe

I have already told you it is a long mile from the castle, which is situate in the midst of a very large village, once a considerable town, part of the walls still remaining, and has not vacant ground enough about it to make a garden, which is my greatest amusement, it being now troublesome to walk, or even to go in the chaise till the evening. I have fitted up in this farm-house a room for myself—that is to say, strewed the floor with rushes, covered the chimney with moss and branches, and adorned the room with basins of earthenware (which is made here to great perfection) filled with flowers, and put in some straw chairs, and a couch bed, which is my whole furniture. This spot of ground is so beautiful, I am afraid you will scarce credit the description, which, however, I can assure you, shall be very literal, without any embellishment from imagination. It is on a bank, forming a kind of peninsula, raised from the river Oglio fifty feet, to which you may descend by easy stairs cut in the turf, and either take the air on the river, which is as large as the Thames at Richmond, or by walking [in] an avenue two hundred yards on the side of it, you find a wood of a hundred acres, which was all ready cut into walks and ridings when I took it. I have only added fifteen bowers in different views, with seats of turf. They were easily made, here being a large quantity of underwood, and a great number of wild vines, which twist to the top of the highest trees, and from which they make a very good sort of wine they call *brusco*. I am now writing to you in one of these arbours, which is so thickly shaded, the sun is not troublesome, even at noon. Another is on the side of the river, where I have made a camp kitchen, that I may take the fish, dress, and eat it immediately, and at the same time see the barks, which ascend or descend every day to or from Mantua, Guastalla, or Pont de Vie, all considerable towns. This little wood is carpeted, in their succeeding seasons, with violets and strawberries, inhabited by a nation of nightingales, and filled with game of all kinds, excepting deer and wild boar, the first being unknown here, and not being large enough for the other. * * Perhaps I shall succeed better in describing my manner of life, which is as regular as that of any monastery. I generally rise at six, and as soon as I have breakfasted, put myself at the head of my weeder [*sic*] women and work with them till nine. I then inspect my dairy, and take a turn among my poultry, which is a very large inquiry. I have, at present, two hundred chickens, besides turkeys, geese, ducks and peacocks. All things have hitherto prospered under my care; my bees and silkworms are doubled, and I am told that, without accidents, my capital will be so in two years' time. At eleven o'clock I retire to my books: I dare not indulge myself in that pleasure above an hour. At twelve I constantly dine, and sleep after dinner till about three. I then send for some of my old priests, and either play at piquet or whist, till 'tis cool enough to go out. One evening I walk in my wood, where I often sup, take the air on horseback the next, and go on the water the third. The fishery on this part of the river belongs to me; and my fisherman's little boat (where I have a green lustrous awning) serves me for a barge. He and his son are my rowers without any expense, he being very well paid by the profit of the fish, which I give him on condition of having every day one dish for my table. Here is plenty of every sort of fresh-water fish (excepting salmon); but we have a large trout so like it, that I, that have almost forgot the taste, do not distinguish it. We are both placed properly in regard to our different times of life: you amidst the fair, the gallant, and the gay; I in a retreat, where I enjoy every amusement that solitude can afford."

What a fine contrast this to the "reports" which so interested Walpole! The truth is, that this active, clever woman, who, on her return from Constantinople, introduced inoculation into England, could find useful occupation even in an obscure Italian village. Here is another picture of her Lovere life:—

"Experience has confirmed to me (what I always thought), that the pursuit of pleasure will be ever

attended with pain, and the study of ease be most certainly accompanied with pleasures. I have had this morning as much delight in a walk in the sun as ever I felt formerly in the crowded Mall, even when I imagined I had my share of the admiration of the place, which was generally soured before I slept by the informations of my female friends, who seldom failed to tell me, it was observed, I had showed an inch above my shoe-heels, or some other criticism of equal weight, which was construed affection, and utterly destroyed all the satisfaction my vanity had given me. I have now no other but in my little housewifery, which is easily gratified in this country, where, by the help of my receipt-book, I make a very shining figure among my neighbours, by the introduction of custards, cheesecakes, and minced pies, which were entirely unknown to these parts, and are received with universal applause; and I have reason to believe will preserve my memory even to future ages, particularly by the art of butter-making, in which I have so improved them, that they now make as good as in any part of England."

Mr. Thomas has done something to clear up the mystery of Lady Mary's quarrel with Pope; he has a happy conjecture as to the cause: yet what a heap of untruths must be swept away if his simple explanation be received! See how the case stands on the authority of the biographers and commentators. First, Lady Mary told Lady Pomfret that "when she became much acquainted with the Duke of Wharton, Mr. Pope grew jealous, and that occasioned the breach between them." But Lady Mary's granddaughter, the delightful Lady Louisa Stuart, says, "Her own statement was this, that at some ill-chosen time when she least expected what romancers call a declaration, he made such passionate love to her, as in spite of her utmost endeavours to be angry and look grave provoked an immediate fit of laughter, from which moment he became her implacable enemy." The last of Pope's biographers calls this "declaration" the "one special cause"; but as we have shown there are two special causes, and Lady L. Stuart's was not published for a century or more after the event. But the curious inquirer is not yet able to decide; for Mr. Dallaway, the editor of Lady Mary's works, favoured with the Bute manuscripts, and presumptively informed of the family traditions, said, half a century before Lady L. Stuart published her anecdote, that the more immediate cause of quarrel was the publication of the 'Town Eclogues,' which had been when Lady Mary left England confidentially entrusted to Pope, yet somehow they got into the hands of Curll, who published them. Fortunately Dallaway's immediate cause of quarrel is disproved by the awkward fact, that three of the 'Town Eclogues' were published many months before Lady Mary left England. Spence assures us also, in Lady Mary's own words, that "she did not know the cause. I got a common friend to ask Mr. Pope why he had left off visiting me. He answered negligently that he went as often as he used to do. I then got Dr. Arbuthnot to ask him," and with no better success. Again, she confirms this: "I have got fifty or sixty of Mr. Pope's letters. You shall see what a Goddess he made of me in some of them, though he makes such a devil of me in his writings afterwards, without any reason that I know of." Other causes have been assigned, and were noticed in our review of the first volume.

A like critical examination is required of all the applied and inferred satires upon her. One, for example, and we could quote a dozen, is described as "undoubted," and the first open manifestation of the quarrel:—

—hapless, Monsieur much complains at Paris
Of wrongs from Dutcheesses and Lady Maries.

Curll, we suspect, in his Key, first gave application to this passage with an "I believe," and

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it is generally supposed that years after, Pope by a note (quarto, 1735) endeavoured to apply it to Lady M. W. Montagu. But Curll will not, we suppose, be quoted as an authority; and Pope's note, be it remembered, never appeared in any earlier or any subsequent edition published in his lifetime, although his hatred and malignity continued to his last hour. Was the application a mere afterthought? If not, if the Lady Mary from the first was intended to apply to Lady Mary W. Montagu, and is illustrated by Walpole's story of her having intrigued with and cheated Monsieur Rémond, who was the Dutchess, her partner both in the intrigue and in the fraud? This satire carries double, and yet we have no word of explanation from the commentators. We should like to ask those gentlemen whether there may not have been some other Lady Mary, of whom Monsieur—not one Frenchman, but hundreds—had reason to complain? What says Pope?—

The Crown of Poland, venal twice an age,
To just three millions stinted modest Gage;
But nobler scenes Maria's dreams unfold,
Hereditary realms and worlds of gold;
Congenial souls, whose life one avarice joins
And one fate buries in the Asturian mines.

The history of these people—more strange than a romance—we have not time to dwell on. They and their relations were expatriated Jacobites, and desperate and ruined gamblers in the Mississippi scheme. Maria was the Lady Mary Herbert, daughter of the titular Duke of Powis, sister to William, Duke of Powis; "modest Gage" was the brother of the mysterious "Mrs. W."—Mrs. Weston—of Pope's Letters, and, some reports say, married to Lady Mary, others to her sister Lady Lucy. We doubt both stories; but perhaps he ought to have been married to Lady Mary. It was asserted by Lady Carrington's friends, that Lady Mary had involved her aunt to an extent hardly credible. She certainly had great influence over her; but we suspect that all the Powis family were gamblers, and we have seen a list of debts to an enormous amount, for which Lady Mary and Lady Carrington were jointly responsible. "Monsieur," that is, all who suffered, complained and very naturally; and Pope complained too, and with as much reason. Pope's sister was one of the sufferers. Pope's brother-in-law died the very year the "Dunciad" was published, and, no doubt, Pope had during his illness learnt that his sister had lent 1,100*l.* to Lady Carrington. This may be a mere speculation, but is sufficient to show that the question ought not to be decided without reference and without explanation.

Mr. Thomas has bestowed great attention and exercised a sound judgment in the chronological arrangement of the undated Letters. We know the difficulties of such labours under any circumstances; but in this instance they were made tenfold greater by the bold and blind tamperings of Dallaway. As a matter of course, we do not always agree with him, although when we differ it is with respect and hesitation. Thus, for example, we have doubts as to 1722 being the date of the letter of Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough. It is quite true that Dallaway has given what he calls a fac-simile of that letter with the date of "Sep.," but we have little more faith in his fac-simile than in his editorial assertions. The Dutchess's writing is scarcely intelligible. The "Sep.," "Nov.," or "Dec." would not generally be distinguishable, and Dallaway, who, to make his own reading of a letter clear, ventured to insert words in the text, would, having decided that the date was "Sep.," have it made plainer by the copyist. Lady Mary could not, as assumed, have written to the Dutchess in September, 1722,

about the death of her son-in-law, the Earl of Sunderland, who died in April; the widowed Dutchess could not call that son-in-law, who was probably within eight or ten years as old as herself, "a valuable young man." For these, and other reasons, it is obvious to us that the party referred to must have been the Dutchess's grandson, Robert Earl of Sunderland, who died in 1729. But he died in November, and, therefore, we suspect that the date should be "Nov." or "Dec."—very different in type, but easily mistaken in the hieroglyphics of the Dutchess. So in respect to the letter to her daughter dated March the 1st, which Mr. Thomas suggests should be 1755, we should say that the date must be 1754. Mr. Thomas has been misled by Dallaway, followed by Lord Wharnccliffe, who says in a note that Lord Coke died in 1755, whereas he died in May, 1753; and in a letter of the 23rd of June, 1755, on the death of the Earl of Drumlanrig, leaving a young widow, Lady Mary makes some reflections on the situation of young and rich widows, and concludes, "as I have already said of M. Cooke [Lady Mary Coke]." Dallaway, to fortify his own blundering, has actually transferred this reference from one letter to the other. This tampering we discovered by a comparison of the letters, as printed by Mr. Thomas from the originals, although the consequences do not appear to have struck him. No editor, indeed, can be sufficiently vigilant to escape from all such misleading influences.

As to Lady Mary's writings or works, as they are called, we are not satisfied, and perhaps never shall be. Mr. Thomas appears to have felt bound to introduce whatever had been produced in Lord Wharnccliffe's edition as written by Lady Mary, and this may have been necessary to satisfy the public. Thus he republishes the whole volume of letters which appeared in 1767, although he expresses an opinion as strong as our own that not a line in it was written by her. There are, too, among the poems many for which the authority is insufficient. That they were found among her papers in her handwriting proves little. Squibs and ballads and trifles were in her time commonly circulated in manuscript, and as commonly copied. Mr. Thomas, it appears, has never seen the volume the contents of which she is said to certify were all written by her. We warn him, forming our opinion from Lord Wharnccliffe's edition, that it cannot be confidently relied on.

NEW NOVELS.

Hills and Plains: a Very Old Story. 2 vols. (Smith, Elder & Co.)

HERE is "a perfect novelty" in the novel line, and a remarkably entertaining book into the bargain. Although these "hills and plains" are in India, there is no fear of the most inveterate novel-reader being bored by long descriptions of foreign scenery, or confounded by learned allusions to historical recollections, either ancient or modern. It only pretends to be just what it really is—a pure, unadulterated, gossipy novel, and, as such, valuable in these degenerate times, when the name of novel is so often used as a mere blind to ensnare the unwary reader into a theological discussion or a lesson on geography or history.

The plot of this story is slight, but one of daily occurrence in India, if not in the mother-country. A young man and a young woman both determine to marry as soon as they can, and settle on anything, or nothing, rather than remain a day longer than is absolutely necessary in single blessedness. They meet—take it for granted that they are in love—and are made

man and wife at the earliest opportunity. Of course, they become tired to death of each other at the end of a few weeks, especially the lady, who, on the plea of ill health, retires to the Hills for change of air and society, hoping to make a little recreation for herself by carrying on an old flirtation or two with which the fact of her marriage has slightly interfered. The poor husband remains on the Plains—very hot, very hard at work, very much in debt, and, in short, a victim to his wife's extravagance and his own folly. His subsequent illness, Flora's remorse (aided by the indifference of her old lover), and her final reformation, are prettily, and even touchingly, related, towards the end of the second volume. By far the most interesting characters in the book are the mother-in-law, Mrs. Ochter, and her three daughters ("spins" seems to be the correct term in Anglo-Indian language). Esther is a particularly pleasant heroine, and Capt. Stapleton, the hero *par excellence*, is quite worthy of her, in spite of the numerous faults which we are told he possesses, but which we forgive and forget very soon after making his acquaintance.

The picture of society in the Hills is, we dare vouch for it, a perfectly true one, and will be most interesting to those who have ever undergone the process themselves, or who have any relations or friends still residing in that quarter of the globe. Even to those who have no connexion with India, the book cannot fail to be amusing. We might venture to indulge in a hope that the Anglo-Indians are not quite so vulgar, and that their peculiar style of "slang" is a little less offensive than is here represented. The writer certainly possesses much skill and facility of writing, and withal a thorough knowledge of his subject.

As a specimen of his ability, we quote the description of the dowager Mrs. Ochter:—

"About three o'clock in the afternoon of a sunny day in March, Mrs. Ochter, laid on a sofa in one parlour, was sleeping the after-tiffin sleep of the just. Let us gaze for a moment on her recumbent form and rosy face, from which, sadly out of keeping, however, a middle-aged native female, plump as her mistress, but ever so much more wrinkled, is warding off curious flies. Mrs. Ochter must have been handsome once, for her features are still good; but whether from high living, or want of exercise, she looks rather apoplectic now, and so cannot disguise from our ears the horrible fact that she snores rather loudly. Her neatly-laced cap has slipped off, too, and reveals a white spot large as a five-shilling piece—which no mortal eye, except her ayah's, ever gazed upon—where hairs ought to have been; but it is not fair to inspect too closely, without due warning, the good madam whom it would be flattery to call middle-aged. Her daughters are in the next room, far from being sleepy; indeed, they are as noisy as young birds in a nest, and a great deal pleasanter to look at."

But for a full-length portrait of the young ladies, we refer the inquisitive reader to the book itself.

Mabel's Cross. 2 vols. (Tinsley Brothers.)

'Mabel's Cross' is, apparently, the work of a very young lady of romantic disposition and Scottish origin. The scene is laid in a glen in the Highlands, full of chieftains, and lairds, and retainers, and where everybody is related to everybody else. There is a bull and a fire, very much like the general run of bulls and fires,—and there is a tiresome old Scotch aunt, who tells about her "forbears," and "Auld World ditties," and "puir laddies" and "bonnie lassies,"—and there is a dreadful Irishman, who carries a shillelagh, and is always getting into some scrape or other, and swearing that, "Och! then, be the blessed St.

Patrick, its after doing something to the murdering villain he'll be"; and who makes himself quite as odious as an Irishman can do.

There does not appear to be any particular hero or heroine to this novel; but there are five or six young ladies, with five or six young gentlemen to match, who spend most of their time in meeting each other out walking, and carrying on little underhand flirtations, or in taking tours on the Continent in small detachments, accompanied, of course, by their respective parents. Their conversation is about as unlike anything in real life as can possibly be conceived by the most vivid imagination. Marion, the wit of the party, tries to ask, in a playful manner, if her cousin Alan has seen her brother coming up the glen. She accordingly exclaims:

"Up! up! Sir Alan, to the turret, and tell me what thy far-seeing eyes can discover. The shadow of Time's scythe strikes falsely if an hour has not sped since Angus, my laggard brother, with the Covenantist maidens from Falconbridge, should have entered the glen. The thirsty sun will have emptied the chalices of my favourite flowers before we reach the mountain side."

How Alan resisted the temptation of giving "the little maiden" a good box on the ear for talking such nonsense does not appear. But a still more trying scene ensues when the haughty young lady, Helen Claverling, encounters, somewhere in the neighbourhood of Avignon, some "Scottish kinsmen," who, happening to make some foolish and commonplace remark upon the fine weather and the beauty of the country, receive a severe lecture for their pains:—

"Helen looked up archly on hearing this panegyric of Capt. Forsythe, and said, 'Surely I have not heard aright! Can these be the sentiments of one of the sons of Scotia—one of Ossian's Children of the Mist? Oh! Capt. Forsythe, I would not have one of our friends in Glenfullah hear so disloyal a speech.' Then, throwing back her head, and with arms uplifted, as if invoking some spirit of the air, she repeated, in a mock heroic tone, a supposed address to Fingal."

Which address must really have made the whole party feel so very hot and uncomfortable, that we spare our readers a repetition of it, only hoping that it is not the usual habit of Scotch young ladies to interrupt "the social meal" by such outbursts of enthusiasm (for this little interlude is supposed to take place at the breakfast-table, between the first and the second cups of tea).

We pass over the hard-hearted old laird who seriously forbids "his constant dove to mate with the fierce eagle of the cliff," and sternly declares that "the dark current which flows through the veins of the Menteiths, stained as it is with cruel wrongs to our persecuted ancestors, must never mingle with the purer stream of the race they have injured." What right any respectable elderly gentleman of the nineteenth century has to suppose that his daughter would be likely to attend to an injunction delivered in such insane language, we cannot guess. It seems to us that poor Lillian was perfectly justified in making her escape from so tiresome an old fool at the first opportunity that offered itself. What her sister Mabel's "cross" consisted of we have yet to discover, unless it signifies a secret attachment to a very High Church young clergyman, who grieves, in silence, over her Presbyterian principles, though he does not seem to have been at much pains to convert her. He keeps, however, a very sharp look-out upon all the young ladies of his own flock, and does the "pastor" with energy and goodwill, and the strictest impartiality. When, for instance, Marion tremblingly craves permission to attend a Highland pibroch meeting, Cyril Herbert looks very grave, and solemnly remarks that she

"seems to have forgotten that it will take place on the 1st of November, which being the Festival of All Saints there will be services in his church at Burnside." The fair penitent, however, has made up her party, and cannot get off her engagement, so she goes to the bagpipe meeting with a heavy heart, and the tolling of the church bells breaks with "an ominous sound upon her imagination." She meets with the just reward of her disobedience; for the party is attacked by a bull; Tim Doolan, the Irishman, gets drunk and runs away; and last, but not least, in her cup of bitterness, Marion herself is insulted by the clown of a travelling circus! She fancies he bears some resemblance to Tim Doolan, and incautiously proclaims this suspicion to her companion, Sir Mike Donovan. Upon which, the clown calls out, with all the audacity and ready wit of his vocation,—"Perhaps, Sir Knight, the young lady may prefer the counterfeit representation to the original; in which case I am quite willing to accept the change." Most refined and genteel clown! We hoped he was to have turned out to be a duke in disguise, and have married Marion, at least; but his well-meant attentions are very ill requited; for we read that "Marion coloured deeply, and, with a haughty glance at the painted varlet, took Mabel's arm, and walked rapidly away in another direction." Unfortunate clown! It does not appear that his talents for wit and humour were appreciated out of his own immediate circle. We do not even find, at the final wind-up of the story, that any London manager offered him an engagement at one of the minor theatres for the forthcoming pantomime, though surely such jests as the one recorded ought to have ensured the poor fellow a handsome weekly salary, and elicited roars of laughter from the gallery every evening. We are sorry for the "painted varlet," who appears to be by far the most lively character in the whole book.

Celtic Inscriptions on Gaulish and British Coins. By Beale Poste. (J. R. Smith.)

WE agree with Mr. Poste that "the readers of these observations will find a mention of ancient Britain in the following pages, which may be perhaps new to them," and we confess that we should ourselves be in the same boat with the supposed readers had it not been our lot to read Mr. Poste's earlier lucubrations. As it is, we have already had some experience of this gentleman's theories, and are not surprised that, in incorporating the substance of his former papers in the present volume, he has hardly, if at all, modified them. But for this, we might, in common with almost any one else who may take up this book, have admired the courage of a man who claims for the Celtic language or literature to be the sole exponent of the arts and antiquities of ancient Britain, and who, in the year of grace 1861, does not scruple to reproduce theories that might have suited the O'Connors and O'Briens of the last century, or the amusing writer of the 'Etruria Celtica.' It is not, indeed, possible, to argue with a man who is content to ignore nearly all that has been done by other scholars before him—who complacently tells us, speaking of Speed, Carte, Hume, Henry, Turner, Lingard, Lappenberg and Kemble, that "the labours of these as a general characteristic have been of little benefit; indeed, that they have frequently been of great disservice and detriment in giving the weight of their names to crude, unfounded and injudicious, though perhaps fashionable, theories of the day," and who, dealing with one of the most hypothetical of his own suggestions, coolly adds, "that he is

well convinced that no other explanation of it will ever be given worthy of the least attention" (p. 40),—adding, too, that in his opinion the late Archdeacon Williams was "one of the illuminati in the literature of the last half-century!"

To attempt to convince this writer, or any of his followers (if indeed there should be any), is, we feel, a hopeless task, but, for the honour of the study of Numismatics (which would indeed be imperilled were such a work to pass by unnoticed), we shall proceed to point out some of the most salient errors. Were we to do so fully, it would be requisite to take page by page of this volume, for there is scarcely any one that does not contain some statement or some theory wholly at variance with the knowledge of the practised numismatist.

To begin with the Gaulish coins and inscriptions, we beg to express our entire dissent from such translations as *Arivos Santonos* ("Arivos the Santon"), *Atisios Remos* ("Atisios the Remian"), and the like; and still more, to protest against the notion that, in such an inscription as *Seguano(tu)os* or *Contoutos*,—there is any latent reference (as Mr. Poste imagines) to *tus* or *tytus*—the word assumed by him to mean "chief" in ancient British. It would upset every principle of sound philology to suppose such a combination of Latin or Greek and Celtic, even though it may be true that, in some cases, Celtic names with classical terminations are found on some of these early coins. In a somewhat similar manner, Mr. Poste adduces a well-known Gaulish coin with the legend *ATEULA*—and tells us, that it ought to read "AT VLAT," to mean, "the Devotee of Mars," the reverse *VLATOS*, being "the name of VLAT himself, that is, Mars, with the Greek termination *os* added," the fact being, that the proposed reading is to an experienced numismatist simply impossible. Mr. Poste adds a series of translations equally improbable, and for which we have no evidence but his "ipse dixit," such as *CINGETORIX* and *VERCINGETORIX* for "King" and "High King" respectively; *TASGETIOS* "the chief," *EPEXOS* the "prince," &c. Of these, we can only say, that, if they should approve themselves to any Celtic scholars (not forgetting the late Archdeacon Williams, who, we know from our own experience, was credulous even for a Welshman), the latter must be much more ready to accept assertions without proof than are the bulk of numismatists.

As another instance we may add that, finding in Lelewel's '*Type Gaulois*' certain inscriptions on coins referring to Rouen, such as *SVTICOS RATUMACOS* and *OSVTICOS RATUMACOS*, Mr. Poste instantly concludes that *SVTICOS* must be the classical form of the Welsh *swyddog*, "a magistrate"; and, since the *o* in old Celtic forms the definite article, that the whole legend, *OSVTICOS RATUMACOS*, must mean "*The magistrate of Rotomagus*," i. e. Rouen!

When we turn to his account of British coins, we do not find his views more happy or more intelligible. Thus, what can we say of a writer who, speaking of Cunobeline, tells us that "he was very much devoted to Roman interests; Latinized so much that some of his legends might almost pass for Latin; indeed, various of them are only reclaimed for the Celtic by one or two words of the reverse"? If this be a true description, all we can say is, that the sooner numismatic studies be given up the better: for if the legends on the coins of Cunobeline be not wholly Latin, we are entirely at a loss to conceive what they can be. The fact is, that if any British coins can be found that are purely classical, not only in their workmanship and language, but also in the types exhibited upon them, they are those of Cunobeline. Not only

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do we find in them such types as the Pegasus, the seated Sphinx, Victory slaying the Bull, Apollo seated with a Lyre, the Bull butting, &c., all of which at once recall the characteristics of the Imperial Roman coinage,—but even the more usual British devices, as the Boar, appear under a form manifestly Romanized, and exhibit Roman influences, if not the actual workmanship of Roman artists.

The real reason of Mr. Poste's Celtic ideas is, that he assumes a certain name, TASC, or TASCII, or TASCIO, which occurs on many British coins, to be a Celtic word, with the further assumption that it means "Imperator" or "Ruler."

It is worth while to pause for a moment, and to see how he has arrived at such a strange conclusion. His argument, condensed, is somewhat as follows:—A series of coins read on the reverse TASC. F. or TASCII. FIR (more or less contracted), while others read COM. F., and on the obverse some other names, as, for instance, CUNOBELINUS F. TASC FIR, he thinks, is doubtless a contraction for TASC. FIRBOLG or FIRCOIRETUS, the "Emperor of the Belge"; and so, in the same way, COM. F. he takes to mean the "Community of the Firbolg."

Now, in the first place, we have no authority whatever for any such title as FIRBOLG, though the name may possibly occur in some mythical Irish annals; and, secondly, the whole theory falls to the ground so far as numismatics are concerned, as the coin on which Mr. Poste relies for his hypothesis really reads FIL, and not FIR. More than that, COM. F. for COMMUNITAS FIRBOLG is simple nonsense. Even were it possible that the second word rightly represents the F. or FIR, it could only be rendered in Latin by COMMUNITAS BELGARUM; assuredly not by a barbarous compound of Latin and Celtic. In fact, unless a student came to the coins with a preconceived theory, which he was determined to maintain *à tort et à travers*, no one could fail to see that the whole legend of these coins, whether contracted or not, is purely Latin, CUNOBELINUS TASC. FIL. (or TASCIOVANI) FIL., as later and more perfect coins determine the full legend to have been) being perfectly like the well-known and contemporary Roman legend AUGUSTUS. DIVI. FIL., &c. Last, not least, it may as well be remembered, that Cunobeline had nothing to do with the Belge, and never could have ruled over any of their tribes. If this be so—and that this is so really, we fearlessly appeal to all practised numismatists—all Mr. Poste's notions of the meaning of TASC, or TASCII, or TASCIOVANI in pure or Latinized Celtic, simply vanish from the scene—and we may dispense with the corroboration he alleges from such names as PRASUTAGUS, TAXIMAGULUS and the like; the first of which, by the way, depends entirely on another coin he has incorrectly read VRE-RCI, but which recent discoveries have shown to be VRE-BOD or VERBOD (the name probably of some now forgotten city). Nor indeed is this all the improbability attached to Mr. Poste's rendering of this coin. On its obverse occurs the word TASCII, which he has already (as we have stated) determined to mean "Emperor." We have therefore a coin reading on one side PRASUTAGUS REX, &c., and on the other "IMPERATOR," an arrangement which, if genuine, there is no numismatist but Mr. Poste who would not call unique. We will only add here, as a specimen of Mr. Poste's method of dealing with language, that he actually supposes a coin lately found, and which reads TASCIOVANTIS, "to be a regular and proper participle of the present tense, and answering precisely to the *Imperantis* of the Latins." In other words, he imagines an unlikely Celtic root, to which he adds a possible Latin termi-

nation, and then as the whole word (according to his scholarlike notions) has become a Latin one, he declines it as if it were pure Latin! With some experience in the philological changes of more than one language, we can safely say, that we have met with nothing analogous to this, except in the barbarous jargon of Jersey, in which island compounded words were (probably are still) heard, consisting of English words with French endings. Whether such a system is likely to have been ever adopted upon any coins, of any people, we are content to leave our readers to judge for themselves.

Mr. Poste goes on to speak of certain sons of Cunobeline, who struck coins, which have, he says, come down to the present day. His sons were, he states, Adminius, Caratacus, Togodabnus and Belinus, of whom the last alone has left no numismatic records. Now, with regard to the first, there is literally no evidence to prove that a coin which reads, according to Mr. Poste, on the obv. AMMINUS, and on the rev. DUN—has anything to do with Adminius; and, with regard to the second, the whole hypothesis rests (as do so many other of Mr. Poste's suggestions) upon a blundered reading, long since rejected by every one but our author. The fact is, there are several coins reading EPP. or EPATI, which Mr. Poste persists in reading KEPATI, with a type probably derived from that of the coins of Gades in Spain,—that of Hercules with the lion's skin over his shoulders. Now where these folds cross under the chin of the hero, the enthusiasm of our author discerns a K; having found the K, he at once reads KEPATI, and assumes that this legend must contain the true form of the name of Caratacus; and it never seems to occur to him, that the son of the "Romanizing" Cunobeline was not very likely to use Greek letters on his money, if he struck any. We may add, that the "various symbols upon them, as bucrania, i.e. skulls of oxen, circles of dots, cases of sacrificial knives, double circles, serpents, &c.," so far from "upholding the nationality of the Britons and of the Druidical Religion," as Mr. Poste supposes, are for the most part creatures of his luxuriant imagination, derived from various adjuncts more or less degenerated, such as the hind legs of the horses, or the misplaced wheels of the Macedonian staters, to which, as is well enough known, the majority of both Gaulish and British coins may be ultimately traced back. In conclusion, we cannot forbear remarking that it is impossible to read three pages of this work without feeling that the writer, however zealously he may have pursued his researches, is really no numismatist, or acquainted with what may be called the alphabet or most elementary part of the science. What can we say of a writer who gravely speaks of "the Roman custom commenced by Julius Cæsar of exhibiting mere mortals on the circulating medium" (p. 18), and who asserts, a little further on, that "Philip the Second of Macedon was the first monarch who introduced his name on any coinage"?—Surely Mr. Poste can scarcely possess the slenderest knowledge of the Greek coinage, if he really believes what his language would lead us to suppose. Again, when he speaks of the "British type inscribed QUANGETH, that is, QUANGES, or CANGI, an ancient state of the island, a reading which caused some difficulty a few years since," Mr. Poste seems quite unaware that the letters he reads as qv are nothing more than the prolonged legs of the horse, a usual type of the coins to which he refers, and that the real legend on this and similar specimens is written shortly ANTED, and on fuller and more perfect specimens ANTEDRIGV?

Mr. Poste will rank in future with the authors he so loves to quote, the O'Briens, O'Conors and O'Flahertys, and be looked up to as an authority by those who believe in the legends of Gildas, Nennius, or Geoffrey of Monmouth.

The Human Foot and the Human Hand. By G. M. Humphry, M.D. (Macmillan & Co.)

THOSE persons, if there be any, who only think of their feet as instruments for kicking, walking, and dancing, and of their hands as troublesome organs to be kept clean and from picking and stealing, will be interested in Dr. Humphry's labours. Indeed, those who would take any interest in the discussion just now going on about the relation of the gorilla to man, will find that the feet and hands present the most remarkable differences between ourselves and those anthropomorphic apes. The great distinctive differences between the feet of man and all lower animals, according to Dr. Humphry, are as follows:—1. In man the several parts are fitted and bound together in a compact firm manner, so as to combine strength and elasticity in the highest degree; in all other animals the foot is more or less sprawling where the toes are divided. 2. The toes of man are shorter than in any of the lower animals, in proportion to the foot; in the monkey the foot is all fingers, not having proper toes at all. Our feet are not intended for organs of prehension, a fact that shoemakers have taken too great advantage of, and prevented the toes from moving at all. If man was intended to be solidungulate, as shoemakers will have him, he would have been provided with natural hoofs, like an elephant or horse. 3. The size of the great toe. This is man's most distinguishing feature. It would puzzle Mr. Darwin to calculate the length of time it would take to develop the gorilla's thumb into a great toe; but as long as the beast presents this miserable apology for a great toe, and has an equally undeveloped heel-bone, so long will man remain at an unapproachable distance, and all idea of blood relationship must be given up. For, as Dr. Humphry remarks, this structure "of the foot is found to have a correspondence with the formation of the head," and may be taken to be an index of intellectual as well as of physical capacity.

Then this foot has its perfection of development. It is seen in the Greek statues. Compare those beautiful feet with Chinese feet, Egyptian feet, nay, even with modern English feet, and it will be seen how great a claim the foot has on our attention, if we would attain the perfection of human form. General disease of the body will produce distortion of the feet. But in nine cases out of ten where the foot is contorted and ugly, it arises from some injudicious management. Of course, the subject of shoes comes in for our author's consideration; and he agrees with Professor Meyer and all other sensible anatomists that the foot was never worse off than at the present day. Shoes should be made to fit the foot, but the present fashion is to make the foot fit the shoe; so that instead of having amongst us feet that could be compared with those of Greek statues, we have feet distorted and deformed. And this, too, amongst a people who laugh at the Chinese! Dr. Meyer's book has been translated into English, and we hope by this time is in the hands of every shoemaker in Great Britain. We do not recollect, however, whether it deals with heel-pieces, but as these inventions appear to be increasing in height, to prevent the dress, without diminishing its enormous extent, from drabbling in the

dirt, we add Dr. Humphry's musings on this point. The heel-piece, he says,—

"should not be high, because it makes the step less steady and secure, and at the same time shortens it, and impairs the action of the calf-muscle. A high heel-piece, moreover, renders the position of the foot upon the ground oblique, placing the fore part at a lower level than the heel; thus the weight is thrown too much in the direction of the toes, and they are driven forwards and cramped against the upper leather of the shoe. The high-heel of a boot, therefore, tends to aggravate the evils which are caused by the insufficient and ill-adjusted space which is allowed to the toes."

A good foot is not only characteristic of man and his intellectual faculties, but in each individual the foot receives an impress from the mind. To walk well, says the Professor, we must walk well:—

"We have little difficulty in recognizing three chief classes among pedestrians. *First*, there are those who pay too much attention to the movements, who walk with a pompous strut, or a mincing gait, or affect some style or other. We are naturally very little inclined in favour of such persons; indeed, we have usually to make an effort not to be decidedly prejudiced against them. *Secondly*, there are those who pay too little attention to their movements, who do not seem to be sufficiently alive to the responsibility attaching to the possessors of so noble a structure as the human frame, and who do not give themselves the trouble to exert the powers of the glorious mechanism with which they are charged. They slouch, or dawdle, along in a listless lazy manner. Instinct tells us, and tells us rightly, to beware how we trust such persons with the conduct of our affairs, or with any office of responsibility. We feel that the lack of energy manifested in the guidance of their limbs is, too probably, a feature of character, which unfits them for the active duties of life; and we know that such men are not usually successful in their calling. *Thirdly*, there are those who show, by the firmness and precision of their step, and by the regularity in the succession of the movements by which the step is made, that they are conscious of the dignity of their species, of the responsibility attendant on that dignity, and of the respect due to themselves. Such men we feel are likely to pursue their avocations energetically and methodically, as well as with punctuality. Many points of character peep out in the way men walk. Our poet tells us that in one we may read—

rascal in the motions of his back
And scoundrel in his supple sliding knees.

Another has a halting, shuffling, undecided gait; while a third walks in a bold, determined, straightforward, erect and independent manner. One has a cautious, parsimonious step, as if sparing of shoe-leather, or afraid to trust the ground; he has, however, probably, trusted the funds with considerable investments. Some walk with long, pretentious, measured strides; others make short, quick, insignificant steps. Some, again, are hurried, fussy, noisy; while others glide along in a quiet, shrinking, unpretending, it may be timid, manner."

But from the Foot we turn to the Hand. One of the most important uses of the foot of man is that it sets the hand free. Amongst the lower animals, we find the fore feet often used independently. The kangaroo, the squirrel and the rat are familiar instances, and this becomes more decided amongst the monkeys; but the great distinction between man and the lower animals is that whilst his feet support his body, his hand is left free to be the great minister of his wants as an intellectual being. The hand, with its marvellous capacity of movement, is one of the most wonderful instruments in the animal world. Without it, it is difficult to imagine that even the mind of man could have been developed, so dependent is mind on body; but on the other hand, it is obvious that the very delicacy and refinement of this organ would have unfitted man for existence, without the direction of his mental

faculties. The structure of the hand gives our author the opportunity of explaining the nature of the skin, and the growth of hairs and nails. The structure of each finger is detailed, and the question of the reason for the ring being usually placed upon the fourth finger is raised. It is shown that the ring-finger is more or less protected by the other fingers, and it owes to this circumstance a comparative immunity from injury, as well probably as the privilege of being selected to bear the ring in matrimony. The left hand is chosen for a similar reason; a ring placed upon it being less likely to be damaged, than it would be upon the right hand. The ancients, however, are said to have selected it from a notion that the ring-finger is connected with the heart by means of some particular nerve or vessel which renders it more favourable for the reception and transmission of sympathetic impressions, the left hand being selected because it lies nearer the heart. But of course the anatomist finds no structure to account for this strange impression.

"Why do we shake hands? It is a very old-fashioned way of indicating friendship. Jehu said to Jehonadab, 'Is thine heart right as my heart is with thine heart? If it be, give me thine hand.' It is not merely an old-fashioned custom; it is a strictly natural one, and, as usual in such cases, we may find a physiological reason, if we will only take the pains to search for it. The animals cultivate friendship by the sense of touch, as well as by the senses of smell, hearing and sight; and for this purpose they employ the most sensitive parts of their bodies. They rub their noses together, or they lick one another with their tongues. Now, the hand is a part of the human body in which the sense of touch is highly developed; and, after the manner of the animals, we not only like to see and hear our friend (we do not usually smell him, though Isaac, when his eyes were dim, resorted to this sense as a means of recognition), we, also, touch him, and promote the kindly feelings by the contact and reciprocal pressure of the sensitive hands. Observe, too, how this principle is illustrated by another of our modes of greeting. When we wish to determine whether a substance be perfectly smooth and are not quite satisfied with the information conveyed by the fingers, we apply it to the lips and rub it gently upon them. We do so, because we know by experience that the sense of touch is more acutely developed in the lips than in the hands. Accordingly, when we wish to reciprocate the warmer feelings we are not content with the contact of the hands, and we bring the lips into the service. A shake-of-hands suffices for friendship, in undemonstrative England at least; but a kiss is the token of a more tender affection."

Then comes the question of right-handedness. Why do we not use our left hands? Our author states that he is not aware of any anatomical reason. He does not think the tendency to use the right hand is congenital, because some men are left-handed. Nevertheless he admits that there must be a greater predisposition, a sort of obliging tendency in the right hand, as it is the used hand of all nations. But why should not man use both hands alike? The answer is, that by the use of one hand we acquire a greater degree of skillfulness and dexterity than we should do if both hands were equally employed:—

"The exclusive use, for instance, of the right hand in writing, cutting, &c., gives it a greater expertness than either hand would have had if both of them had been accustomed to perform these offices. Hence, we usually find that persons who are left-handed are rather clumsy-fingered, because, although, in them, the left hand is used for many purposes which are commonly assigned to the right, yet the conventionalities of life interfere a good deal. The pen and the knife, for instance, are still wielded by the right hand. Accordingly such persons are neither truly right-handed nor truly left-handed; and they do not commonly

acquire so great skill in the use of either hand as do those whose natural tendency is more in harmony with custom."

Dr. Humphry is not a believer in Cheirromancy. He has not a word to say in favour of getting the fortune told by the look of the hand. We could have wished he had said a little more about palmistry; surely there was some foundation for it. But modern men of science throw over so unceremoniously all the beliefs of their ancestors, that they will not even stop to gather up the poetry and feeling that gathered round the dear old conceits, however false. Hear how he passes sentence on that half-black art which made our grandmothers tremble:—

"You will estimate the value of the science of Cheirromancy when you hear that equal furrows upon the lower joint of the thumb argue riches and possessions; but a line surrounding the middle joint portends hanging. The nails, also, come in for their share of attention: and we are informed that, when short, they imply goodness; when long and narrow, steadiness but dulness; when curved, rapacity. Black spots upon them are unlucky; white are fortunate. Even at the present day Gipsies practise the art when they can find sufficient credulity to encourage them."

We take leave of this little volume, convinced that, whoever will take the trouble to read it will not only be amused, but if not already learned in the mysteries of anatomy, will gain much profitable instruction.

The Journals of Frederick von Gentz.—[*Tagebücher von Friedrich von Gentz*, mit einem vor und nach Wort von Varnhagen von Ense]. (Leipzig, Brockhaus.)

THE literary remains of Varnhagen von Ense are a perfect Pandora's box of scandal, of which Miss Ludmilla Assing holds the key. We have had from it already the 'Correspondence of Alexander von Humboldt,' the perusal of which produced so painful a sensation; next came 'Letters to a Female Friend,' in which Varnhagen vented his spite on Mr. Carlyle; after this came a more harmless, but more stupid book in the shape of 'Correspondence between Rahel and David Veit,' suitable solely for German readers; while, last of all, we receive the volume we have now under consideration, which is not inferior in scandalous interest to any of its predecessors. But the Journals, though valuable to a considerable extent in a political sense, are even more so in a personal sense, because they enable us to appreciate the character of this confidant of emperors and princes, the right hand of Metternich, and one of the warmest promoters of the Holy Alliance.

The Journals are, to a certain extent, an *impromptu fait à loisir*. Although written day by day, in 1819, Gentz excerpted all the passages which he thought to possess any posthumous value, and burned the originals. The pettiness of detail in what is left surprises us; but, before all, the cynicism and self-complacency with which the author describes his intrigues with princesses and actresses, and more disgusting liaisons. From his own confessions, Gentz never refrained from any vice which gratified him, nor was he particular as to the sources whence he derived the means wherewith to gratify his passions. Judging from his own Journals, he was a poor creature; but he possessed the peculiar talent of being all things to all men. His versatility, which enabled him to change his stand-point at any moment, because he really cared for nothing, save himself—his intimate acquaintance with persons and things—and his skill in writing French, rendered him very well fitted for the part he played, ere Prince Metternich made

him his assistant. He was, in fact, a species of political private correspondent with various high personages, whom he informed of the state of affairs in Vienna, and who evinced their gratitude by paying him handsomely. This was especially the case with England. We find him receiving drafts from that country for 9,000 florins, and, again, the round sum of 500*l.*; while from Prince Czartoryski, among others, he received 500 ducats, and a ring worth 400 more. This is what Gentz calls his "unexpected income." At the same time he drew up manifestoes, when they were ordered and paid for, for the Swedish Government, the Viennese Cabinet, and for the banished Louis the Eighteenth. We cannot help thinking of the public writers in Spain, who sit in the street, ready to employ their pen for the first comer. But Gentz's customers were crowned heads, princes and ministers; while those of the *Ecrista* are love-sick girls and poor workmen: and the payment followed the same ratio. At a later date he even began to believe in the principles he defended, which at the outset was not always the case, as his Journals sufficiently prove. Most amusing, too, is the opinion he forms of his own value. Thus, we find him writing in 1814:—"The political aspect is gloomy, owing to the mediocrity and incompetence of nearly all the actors; as I have nothing to reproach myself with, my confidential acquaintance with this lamentable state of things, and all the wretched creatures who govern the world, far from saddening me, delights me; and I enjoy the spectacle, as if it were being performed expressly for my amusement."

The important portion of this volume is the journal kept during 1809, and written entirely in French. It is published exactly as first written, under the influence of the terrible blows dealt upon Austria at that period. It is remarkable through the bitter reproaches the most loyal generals cast upon the Emperor Francis, the Archduke Charles, and other great personages. Public opinion has long been decided about the Archduke; he was a good commander, and well versed in the theory of war, but he wanted initiative, and was apt to be satisfied with minor successes. As we were not aware, however, that such views were entertained in Austria so far back as 1809, we purpose to give some illustrative extracts.

In 1802, Gentz was attached to the Austrian Cabinet as Councillor, with a salary of 4,000 florins. He sent the English Ministry regular reports of the state of affairs in Vienna; but the Count Cobenzl kept him so thoroughly in the dark that, in spite of his extensive political connexions, he reported the most peaceful prospects to London in 1805, even after Austria had combined with Russia to fight France, and the outbreak of hostilities was imminent. He complains bitterly that "England began to care much less for him, as it was evident that he was excluded from court secrets." The result was that Gentz proceeded to Dresden in 1806, and the silence of his court at his departure insulted him more than the most violent reproaches would have done. At the same time financial matters were in an unsatisfactory position; but, for all that, he was always in the highest circles, and fell madly in love with a Princess of Courland, "the last great passion that attached him to a woman." The year 1807 he spent at Prague with the princess, where he was a *personnage de consequence*, though he cannot explain why. In 1808, a large credit was opened for him in England, which freed him from all his cares, while Madame de Staël formed his acquaintance, and wrote to Vienna "that he was the first man in Germany."

It was not till 1809, however, that the Stadion Ministry, which had resolved on collecting its strength for a fresh contest with Napoleon, recalled Gentz to Vienna, when his first task was drawing up the manifesto of war. The French diary begins in June of that year, after the battles of Aspern and Essling. There was at that day a strong peace party, at the head of which stood Prince Joseph Lichtenstein, and they combined their efforts to overthrow Stadion. Although the latter had a powerful supporter in the Empress, who was enthusiastic for the continuance of the war, the peace party had hopes of success, because the Emperor listened to the advice of other persons besides his minister, and might in the long run be induced to follow it.

O'Donnell gave Gentz opportunity to inquire into the state of military affairs and the temper of the army. The report deserves quotation, as throwing a new light on the events of that memorable campaign:—

O'Donnell is convinced that, unless Heaven effects a miracle, Archduke Charles cannot save us. "He has throttled the empire—he has dug an abyss into which he will hurl himself." What else can you expect from a man who has no *fond*, no principles on which to work? He has no soul; he only knows the smaller passions—selfishness, false pride, and envy. Since he has been able to boast of beating Napoleon, he considers his work ended; and he will see the monarchy overthrown without feeling any great emotion in consequence. His behaviour in the early part of the campaign is explicable through a single fact. So soon as he knew that Bonaparte was with the army, he committed one error on the top of the other. We knew already that he was compelled to fight and win the battle of Aspern with a knife at his throat. But the strongest fact is, that, in the middle of the battle of May 22, he was attacked by such a weakness, that he issued the order to retreat. John Lichtenstein and other generals took the greatest trouble to dissuade him from his design; and as, most fortunately, at the very moment he gave the eventful order the enemy evidently began to give way, no more was heard of it. O'Donnell assures me of the accuracy of this anecdote, which the generals conceal among themselves like a crime.

Another remark of O'Donnell's is equally curious: he declared that the Archduke resembled one of those cocks whose beak is pressed on to the table, and a chalk mark drawn over it; the cock believes that it is fastened down by this chalk line: it flutters its wings, but imagines that it cannot remove its beak from the table. The island of Lobau was the Archduke's chalk mark. After the battle of Wagram it is Count Palffy, a confidant of the Empress and ardent member of the war party, from whom Gentz picks up crumbs of information:—

He imparted to me many details about the story of the last battle. At length—though truth and reason gain the victory too late—everybody is agreed as to the utter incompetency and disgraceful nothingness of Archduke Charles. The entire army yells at it. His scandalous inaction after the battle of Aspern, his extraordinary conduct up to the battle-day of Wagram, were not sufficient to enlighten the public: one trait more was required—the despondency he displayed at the first disaster of that battle. "From the moment when he commanded the retreat of the left wing," says Palffy, "the disorder became general and fearful. After the battle he sent Colloredo to the Emperor to inform him that he could not fight longer; that he needed a peace, or, at least, an armistice; and that he had only 35,000 men left on whom he could count." Instead of dismissing him on the spot, the Emperor proposed to meet him on the next day, when they would arrange the negotiations for an armistice. The Emperor set out on the 10th, and the armistice was concluded on the 12th.

We are really surprised to find that Varn-

hagen gave the sanction of his name to all this scandal about a truly brave man, who, as even Thiers allows, displayed extraordinary energy; for Varnhagen was himself present at the battles of Aspern and Wagram, and has described them in a masterly manner. He was witness at Aspern how the Archduke seized the flag of the Zach regiment, placed himself at the head of the wavering columns, and by his example led the troops to victory. At Wagram, again, it was owing to his exertions that, after the most murderous battle of modern times, the Austrian army left the field in such good order that from July to October it was an open question whether the war should not be continued. But we seek in vain a foot-note or remark drawing the reader's attention to these facts; and it is only a further proof, were it needed, that Varnhagen was an ultra-billious man, who batted on malice. But to return to Gentz and his confessions.

The utter want of feeling on the part of the Emperor, the journalist goes on to say, was a phenomenon of at least the same importance as the incompetence of the Archduke. He watched the whole progress of the action from the top of a hill, and gazed on it as a spectacle which in no way affected him. When the battle began, he coldly said, "I feel assured that matters will go badly with the left wing, because Rosenberg is there." On September 23, Gentz received confidential communications from Count Stadion, which fill up the sketch of the Emperor's extraordinary weakness:—

It is impossible to reckon on this man for only a quarter of an hour: in order to be sure of him, you ought to be able to remain with him every minute of the twenty-four hours. It is not sufficient to hold the promise of his signature: notes ready to send off are frequently altered, when one or the other phrase-maker or intriguer interferes. He travels to Budweis, to carry out a change in the command of the army. Stadion arrives only a day after him: the Emperor says to him, at four in the afternoon, "All is arranged: the letters will be sent off at once." At nine o'clock Stadion returns and finds all the arrangements upset. The Emperor stammers a few excuses, and informs him that he has removed Prohaska, the chief of the staff chosen by Grinne, but that the rest will remain as they were. Even in reference to the present moment Stadion has said to me more than once: "I am perfectly well aware that the Emperor will desert us,—that he will slip away after a lost battle, and commend us to God." I remarked to him more than once how frightful the idea seemed to me of exposing ourselves to fresh accidents of war with such an utterly wretched being. He sighed, for what could he answer? A thousand times I was on the point of asking him the serious question, "How could you undertake a war to the death under the orders of a man of such a stamp as this Emperor?" but I had never the courage to express this too indelicate remark. And yet I consider this the chief accusation against Count Stadion. The levity with which he entered on so painful a career was the first cause of our ruin.

After the battle of Wagram, Gentz was for the settlement of a peace at any price. With delight he registers every remark about the incompetence of the leaders and the bad condition of the army, because it confirmed his views. He constantly strove to bring the leaders of the war party over to his ideas; and when the negotiations with Napoleon were suspended, because the latter demanded the surrender of Trieste, he was terribly angry at the exaggerated importance attached to that town. But the great obstacle to peace was the Empress. As she could not be a happy wife, owing to the state of her health and other reasons, she appeared to have formed the resolution of being a great woman and dying as a heroine

The Emperor was eventually pressed on all sides, and yielded; upon which Count Stadion handed in his resignation, and Metternich took the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It is characteristic of his future policy, that we find him blaming his predecessor because he had tried to make the nation enthusiastic for the war. But the new minister was not on a bed of roses, if we may believe our reporter:—

The Emperor, surrounded either by his brothers (there are half-a-dozen of them here now for his birthday) or attending on his dying, oft-delirious wife, carried away by the exaltation of a person who believes she no longer belongs to this world, or listening to two thick heads, who accompany him everywhere—Wrba (who has become colossal stupid) and General Kutschera—is only the shadow of a sovereign, while he still fancies he governs. The most perfect anarchy has taken the place of the government. And these wretches speak from time to time of the resumption of hostilities. Good God! they wish to carry on a war while they have 70,000 sick, whom they do not know how to cure; and entire regiments want rations; while every branch of the administration is sick with disorder and stagnation!

From all quarters Gentz collects evidence in support of his peaceful views. We have Radetzky talking of the temper of the army, anxious for an entire change of the dynasty, and the Prince of Hesse fully confirming him. At length Gentz was rendered happy. Bubna and Prince Lichtenstein were sent off to negotiate peace, which they speedily effected. Gentz gives some interesting details with reference to their mission, from which we will make the following extract, showing the great Napoleon's opinion of the Austrian army:—

Bubna had several interviews with Napoleon; some alone, others accompanied by Prince Lichtenstein. On one occasion Bonaparte was violent with the Prince; it was in the matter of the famous project to raze the walls of Vienna. The Prince said to him, "You will not do it, Sire!"—"Why not?" Napoleon objected.—"Because it would be opposed to your character." This annoyed Napoleon, and he answered, "My character remains as it always was; I do not alter, and allow nobody to lecture me." After this scene he was reconciled to Lichtenstein, and was never otherwise with Bubna. Once he told the latter the whole history of his life, from the siege of Toulon upwards. He talked with his wonted simplicity and openness about the events of the last campaign, and said, among other things, "My prominent advantage over you is being constantly on the offensive, in great things as in small, and at every moment. I act only on the defensive when I do not see you; as, for instance, at night: but so soon as I perceive you I assume the offensive again, form my plans, and compel you to fly before my movements." He assured him that he never formed a plan beforehand, but always at the moment when he surveyed the enemy's position and detected his probable designs. "Your army would be as good as mine if I commanded it; any other army that measured its strength with you, Russian, Prussian, &c., would assuredly be beaten." With reference to politics, he remarked, "I repeat that it was never my intention, nor will it be so, to injure you. But will you leave me at rest? I wish to believe that this peace will last five or six years; but then you will pick a quarrel again, unless everything alters with you. Why complain about the loss of a patch of land, which will belong to you again some day? All this can endure so long as I live. France cannot carry on a war beyond the Rhine. A Bonaparte could do it; but with me all will be over."

Gentz, the malicious, is careful to append a rider to the above. He considers that Napoleon was ever regarded too tragical; it would have been more beneficial to look at the other side of his character—the political Harlequin, the Cagliostro. Bonaparte was a man of the moment; but there was very little of

organized plan, bold system, or completeness of glance about him. The close of the Journal of 1809 is equally characteristic of the writer:—"Herewith ends one of the most memorable epochs of my life. Few persons know so well as I do the true, serious and lamentable history; I am destined to be some day its historiographer." We reach 1810, and that peace Gentz so earnestly desired; and yet we find the departure of Maria Louisa for her marriage with Napoleon causing him a deep melancholy, though the state of his health may have had something to do with it. He declares that the evening of the day on which the marriage was solemnized "was one of the saddest in his life, and he cried like a child; for the most gloomy thoughts filled his mind." In the same year he gives us a piquant characteristic of Metternich: "he believes in his good luck, and that is a prominent quality. He has fortune and winning manners; but he is light-minded, conceited, and devoted to pleasure. If his planet favour him, he can give the State a good direction; but a new crisis would overthrow him." But Gentz himself did not neglect his pleasures; for he finds a new deity, the Princess Solms, "the loveliest woman his eyes ever beheld," with whom, when her "brutal" husband withdrew, he spent some glorious weeks.

The two following years may be passed over unnoticed, to reach the Year of Liberation, in which Gentz was called upon to draw up the Austrian manifesto. Still he does not find much to praise in the great upheaving of nations; for a week before the battle of Leipzig he writes:—

On the 4th of October, Count Metternich paid a visit to Prague, where Murat's Neapolitan envoy and the Danish Count Bernstorff were awaiting him. He remained there till the 7th. I had many important conversations with him, especially on German affairs, whose future destiny was a difficult problem. The spirit aroused through the general opposition to French dominion in Germany had so grown, especially in Prussia, that the war of liberation was not unlike a war of liberty. This gave rise to serious considerations and apprehensions: and the idea that the overthrow of a despotism established on the revolution, might lead once again to a revolution instead of a restoration, was constantly alluded to by myself in those conversations.

In the same year, Gentz was appointed Court Councillor by the Emperor, and received a present of 2,000 florins. Now he was "stamped a great gentleman," he exclaims in delight; and his Journal overflows with his feelings. Curious enough, and characteristic of the man, is his rejoicing at the overthrow of Napoleon at Leipzig, "because he had drawn on himself his personal hatred." In the beginning of 1814, Gentz was recalled to Vienna, and was not sorry to escape the fatiguing and dangerous campaign; but he had other matters to attend to besides politics. "Through the arrival of the Duchess de Sagan the stay of Prince Metternich at Baden (by Vienna) became very stormy. My relations to the Prince had taken a serious turn, and I had often to pay dearly enough for the honour of being his confidant and intermediary."

About the Congress of Vienna, the entire proceedings of which Gentz noted down, but eventually burned, we learn but little from this volume. Still we find that Talleyrand made Gentz a present of 24,000 florins, and Castle-reagh gave him 6,000 ducats with the fairest promises for the future. It is not surprising, therefore, that Gentz vents all his malice on Prussia, and holds her guilty of fostering the war, which it is notorious was on the point of breaking out among the allies, when Napoleon's return from Elba restored a temporary amity. The Journal referring to the Congress closes with the following words, which show that it

was worth while fishing in troubled waters in those days:—

This year closed brilliantly. Since my visit to Baden my health has been excellent, better than it has been for years. My position in the world, even if it has not grown, has at any rate attained fresh lustre through the Congress and the presence of so many strangers of distinction. In the two last months I had, in addition to the sums my relations with Bucharest procured me, 48,000 florins of extraordinary revenue. My total incomes in the year 1814 amounted to at least 17,000 ducats. I paid many debts, improved my household and did my people many acts of kindness. 1815 began under tolerably favourable auspices for me; as regards public affairs, I see it is useless to fancy that they will ever fulfil the vain dreams in which enthusiasts indulge, and which I have eternally resigned. *Ergo sit felix et faustum!*

From 1815 to 1818 the Journals are missing, and the volume closes with that of 1819, during which year Gentz conducted the protocols at the Vienna Congress. From it we will only quote one remark, which he makes on December 14:—"Present at the last and most important sitting for the regulation of the 13th article of the Federal Act (the measures against the press and the universities), and played my part in one of the greatest and most worthy results of the deliberations of our age. A DAY MORE IMPORTANT THAN THAT OF LEIPZIG!"

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Footnotes from the Page of Nature. By the Rev. Hugh Macmillan. (Macmillan & Co.)—In this volume, in four chapters, of which one is dedicated to Mosses, a second to Lichens, a third to Conifers, and the fourth to Fungi, the author gives a brilliant sketch of some of the lowest forms of the vegetable world. It does not claim to be a scientific treatise dealing "with particular orders and species," but simply a popular history of the uses, structural peculiarities, associations, and other interesting facts connected with the humblest forms of plant life. The book is therefore a work *de minimis*; it deals with things invisible to ordinary mortals, or visible only in their grosser forms. The problem he had to solve was how to make these *êtres de raison* interesting to the general reader. To do that successfully considerable descriptive power and a good deal of dexterity in blending the manifest with the imaginary are indispensable requisites, which we are happy to say Mr. Macmillan possesses. To a considerable scientific acquaintance with the microcosm before him, he adds the happy art of knowing how to select and condense, and fix the attention of the reader upon salient points, the luminous foci of natural history, leaving its darker recesses to those who have a taste to tread them. He is especially happy in dealing with those strange bodies called phytozoa, quasi-animals quasi-plants, born in the cell of a moss or a seaweed, but gliding about like some veritable animalcule, and forming the most marvellous of the marks that have yet been discovered among the great sub-classes of Acrogens and Thallogens. For what we know of these extraordinary productions we are indebted to the Achromatic Microscope, an instrument which few general readers possess, and still fewer can use. To understand its results they must therefore see with eyes not their own; and they can employ no better ones than those of the Rev. Hugh Macmillan, who writes well because he writes clearly and forcibly on a subject which he knows.

Rambles in Search of Ferns. Rambles in Search of Mosses. By Margaret Plues. (Houlston & Wright.)—These little books may guide beginners through the first difficulties of finding out and identifying the more common of the ferns and mosses. The illustrations are good enough to answer their purpose; the plants are described by compound English names, which are generally translations of their systematic ones; and the scientific information is relieved by sketches of scenery, by dialogues and conversations, by poetical

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quotations appropriate and otherwise, and by theological platitudes tagged on here and there for no earthly purpose we can see except it be to eke out copy and please the *Evangelical Magazine*. The preacher who, finding he had still plenty of time before him, lugged an anecdote into his extempore prayer, had the merit of originality in impropriety; but there is impropriety or irreverence without originality,—there is, in fact, pious vulgarity, displayed when a collector of ferns, rejoicing over a full fernery, cries, "and the samples of this marvellous creation come into our hands because the Lord our God brings them to us." The Rambles in search of Ferns and Mosses are to be followed by the publication of Rambles in search of Lichens, Seaweeds and Fungi, in which it may be hoped there will be found less divinity and more botany.

Linear Perspective Simplified. By J. Holt. (Holt.)—A book of rudiments: we do not see in what the simplification consists.

Singular Properties of the Ellipsoid and Associated Surfaces of the Nth Degree. By the Rev. G. F. Childe. (Macmillan & Co.; Juta, Cape Town.)—Most of our readers would not understand any point of this book, except that the author caught Prince Alfred at Cape Town, and got permission to dedicate. The author has worked out a number of general relations with care and ingenuity.

The Nautical Almanac for 1865. (Murray.)—Four years in advance, as usual. Poor Franklin! did he or did he not run through the almanacs he took out with him? One Nautical Almanac is more like another than are any two volumes of any other series. In 1865 we learn that there will be (October 19) a partial eclipse of the sun, visible all over Great Britain, throughout which the sun will set before the eclipse is finished.

Of religious publications we have received:—*The Lex Evangelica; or, Essays for the Times, proving that Holy Scripture is the only Infallible Interpreter to Reason in search after Religious Truth; being a Reply to 'Essays and Reviews,'* by the Rev. W. S. Burnside (Hamilton);—*Twelve Obscure Texts of Scripture illustrated according to the Spiritual Sense,* by Mary C. Hume (Manwaring);—*Aves-I-Hind; or, a Voice from the Ganges; being a Solution of the True Source of Christianity,* by an Indian Officer (Manwaring);—*The Revelation, with a Short, Plain, Continuous Exposition,* by the Rev. S. Smith (Ridgway);—*Clerical Papers,* by One of Our Club (Parker);—*Some Modern Difficulties respecting the Facts of Nature and Revelation,* by the Rev. J. Moorhouse (Macmillan);—*The Doctrine of Atonement by the Son of God,* by H. Solly (Whitfield);—*Three Sermons, composed for delivery at the Opening of a New Organ at St. Chrysostom's Church, Everton,* by the Rev. H. B. Wilson (Longman);—*A Farewell Sermon, preached in Westminster Abbey,* by the Rev. T. W. Weare (Parker);—*Papal Aggressions on the Realm of England resisted from the Introduction of Christianity to the Reformation,* by the Rev. R. Potter (Seeley);—*Prophecy Unfolded; or, Eternal Redemption: with Providential Agencies, the Second Advent of the Lord Jesus Christ, the Restoration of the Jews, &c.,* by J. Coleman (Bateman);—*A Crystal from Cloud-Land; or, Theology "Made Easy,"* by META(A)AOTIS (Manwaring);—*Right and Might; or, the Bishops and Beggars of the Nineteenth Century* (Simpkin);—*A Letter to the Bishop of London on the Subject of the Present Religious Movement in Italy,* by the Rev. L. M. Hogg and T. P. Woodcock (Rivingtons);—*The Further Revision of the Liturgy, with reference to the Clergy, 'Essays and Reviews,' &c.* (Hamilton);—*The Messages of the Prince, and how they were received* (Parker);—*Amendments in the Book of Common Prayer, prepared by the Committee of the Liturgical Amendment Society (Ireland),* (Hamilton);—*Church Extension in Liverpool: Remarks on the Census of Liverpool,* by the Rev. A. Hume (Tinsling);—*and The Perfect Gift: a Poem, by One of the Crowd, addressed to the Readers of 'Essays and Reviews'* (Andrew).

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Bannister's Temples of the Hebrews, crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.
Bristow's Glossary of Mineralogy, crown 8vo. 12s. cl.
Cattlin's Life amongst the Indians, post 8vo. 6s. cl.
Circle of the Sciences, new edit. Vols. 8 and 9, crown 8vo. each, 5s. cl.

County Society, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. cl.
Cunningham's Readings on New Test., James to Jude, 8vo. 6s. cl.
Davidson's Precedents in Conversation, 2nd edit. Vol. 3, 2s. 10s. cl.
Dickens's Works, illust. Old Curiosity Shop, Vol. 2, 7s. 6d. cl.
Dobell's Lectures on Germs and Vestiges of Disease, 8vo. 6s. 6d. cl.
Dumas's Hist. Lib., 1. Paris, 2. Paris, 3. Paris, 4. Paris, 5. Paris, 6. Paris, 7. Paris, 8. Paris, 9. Paris, 10. Paris, 11. Paris, 12. Paris, 13. Paris, 14. Paris, 15. Paris, 16. Paris, 17. Paris, 18. Paris, 19. Paris, 20. Paris, 21. Paris, 22. Paris, 23. Paris, 24. Paris, 25. Paris, 26. Paris, 27. Paris, 28. Paris, 29. Paris, 30. Paris, 31. Paris, 32. Paris, 33. Paris, 34. Paris, 35. Paris, 36. Paris, 37. Paris, 38. Paris, 39. Paris, 40. Paris, 41. Paris, 42. Paris, 43. Paris, 44. Paris, 45. Paris, 46. Paris, 47. Paris, 48. Paris, 49. Paris, 50. Paris, 51. Paris, 52. Paris, 53. Paris, 54. Paris, 55. Paris, 56. Paris, 57. Paris, 58. Paris, 59. Paris, 60. Paris, 61. Paris, 62. Paris, 63. Paris, 64. Paris, 65. Paris, 66. Paris, 67. Paris, 68. Paris, 69. Paris, 70. Paris, 71. Paris, 72. Paris, 73. Paris, 74. Paris, 75. Paris, 76. Paris, 77. Paris, 78. Paris, 79. Paris, 80. Paris, 81. Paris, 82. Paris, 83. Paris, 84. Paris, 85. Paris, 86. Paris, 87. Paris, 88. Paris, 89. Paris, 90. 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but by the state of the dentition, described in my paper read at Manchester. Is it true that this young male was kept chained by the neck during the period described by M. Du Chaillu? If so, the skin and hair should exhibit marks of the chain. They do exhibit such marks unmistakably. I could multiply other instances, which have yielded to my mind the comfortable proof that Zoology has been enriched by observations made for the first time by an intelligent Naturalist on the habits of living Gorillas and Chimpanzees in their native woods.

When I listened to M. Du Chaillu's exposition of these habits before a crowded audience, first at the Royal Geographical Society and then before the Royal Institution in Albemarle Street, I was impressed with a conviction of his capability of noting down his observations in the vivid and impressive style in which those notes are incorporated in the book. But as to his merits as a geographical explorer I have offered no opinion, and as to his antecedents I know nothing. I feel bound, however, to testify that in all the business interviews I have had with M. Du Chaillu he has impressed me as being a frank, truthful, liberal-minded man, more desirous that the public should benefit by the rarities which he has brought to us from a deadly and dangerous country than as seeking any mere personal profit.

RICHARD OWEN.

SHAKESPEARE'S GARDEN.

The following letter to the Rev. G. Granville, Vicar of Stratford-on-Avon, is so interesting to the lovers of Shakespeare, that we have no hesitation whatever in placing it before our readers:—

"24, Essex Street, Strand, Sept. 13, 1861.

"Dear Sir,—I read in the *Athenæum* in the Spring of what you were doing for the Home of Shakespeare; of the trees which the Committee had already planted, and of what they hoped for. It was said, 'a fine fig-tree is climbing up the west wall and will give us green figs in time'; and it was asked, 'who will give to Shakespeare a hardy vine, one that will bear him the "purple grapes"?' This house is built upon part of the substructure of Essex House. The two lower storeys have the old thick walls. The garden is where the old terrace once was; twenty feet and more above the adjoining Temple Garden. Under it is a long lofty vault, and in it are two old vines. I do not pretend that they are as old as Elizabeth's time; but I have a fond hope that their ancestor's leaves gave grateful trellis shade, as one of them does now. Their roots are somewhere, no doubt; the old mortar in the vaulting must be very good to give such fruit. Now my family is so romantic as to believe that Shakespeare must have many a time walked up and down our bit of terrace; have sat at the end with my Lord Essex and Lord Southampton, admiring the moonlight on the river or jesting with 'Night' Templars over the parapet wall; must have drunk some sack in the cellar, and taken water at 'the stairs.' It is even believed that hardly at Stratford is there anything so little altered and so near to Shakespeare's footsteps as our paved garden. Hence my writing, that the year before last I reared a vine by bending down a shoot from the oldest one; that it is well-rooted now, and though this season and the last have been unfavourable it is in excellent health; and that, if it so please you and the other members of the Committee, the Autumn being come, I would have it taken up and carefully packed, and sent at the proper time for transplanting in its 'New Place.' I am not unused to vines; I think that very soon it would 'bear the purple grapes.'—I am, your obedient servant,

JOHN J. COLE."

Of course the vicar and the Birthplace Committee very gladly accept the appropriate present. We hope the plant may thrive.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY OF PERSPECTIVE.

(No. I.)

October 1, 1861.

I can find nothing on the history of Perspective which deserves the name. What there is amounts only to epitome: and even this in a vague and frequently inaccurate form. A few rough notes

may at once interest the geometer and the artist, and be of use to any one who meditates a larger undertaking. Without pretending to exhaust the subject, or even to mention every celebrated writing, I digest a few scraps which I have collected by actual examination of the works which, as the French say, make epoch, from the time of the Greeks to that of Brook Taylor. The artist will perhaps be surprised at the omission, and at the slightness of the mention, of works which are of celebrated fullness of description or multiplicity of examples. But I have nothing to do except with additions of new power.

Perspective, *perspectiva*, is an old name for optics. In this sense it was used, for the first time perhaps, by Roger Bacon, whose friend and pupil, John Peckham, Archbishop of Canterbury, did as much to spread the word as any one, by his work on optics, '*Perspectiva Communis*,' which lived till the invention of printing, and then went through many editions. In spite of doubts recently raised I continue of opinion that Bacon's '*John of London*' is no other than Peckham, and that he is also the '*Auctor Perspectivæ*' to whom Bacon refers in the '*Opus Tertium*.' If so, it is some proof of the notoriety which this work had attained, that Bacon distinguishes Peckham by reference to the optics, when really quoting one of his logical works, of which it is otherwise known there were several. Peckham, or Peccamus, is of that notoriety under which a name is transfigured. Baldi, while calling him *Betsan*, laughs at the ignorance of those who call him *Pisano*; and Schott calls him *Pethsan*.

All the authors on *perspectiva*, optics, are set down in one place and another as writers on what we now mean by the word; Bacon, Peckham, Alhazen, Vitello, &c. Some historical epitomists have even given critical accounts of the draughtsmanship of these optical writers, praising or blaming their manner of performing processes on which they never cast a thought nor wrote a line. The earliest work on Perspective in catalogues is the '*De Sculptura*' of Pomponius Gauricus, Florence, 1504, in which *perspectiva* is a title-page promise. And this means optics, if anything; and the *optics* is about the eye, which, we are informed, may be large, small, middling, prominent, &c.; after which we are introduced to the nose. Those who made catalogues did not look into books; those who looked into books did not correctly say what books they used: and these two negatives do not make an affirmative, unless positive falsehood or absolute confusion have a right to the name.

We shall come to the time at which the word took its restricted meaning, and the manner in which the restriction gradually arose. In the meanwhile I will point out that the old sense lived in our language until after the Revolution. The small pocket Galilean telescope which we now call an opera-glass was the *perspective glass*, the *pocket perspective*, of Swift and Defoe, through which Gulliver watched the Blefuscians, and Robinson Crusoe the cannibals. And the word here does not mean a thing to spy through, but is a synonym of *optic*: the "*optic-glass*" would have done as well, and was, in fact, a tolerably common technical name. So that the readers of Milton should be aware that though "*Tuscan artist*" is undoubtedly poetry for Galileo, "*optic glass*" is merely prose for a telescope. Henceforward by *perspective* I mean nothing but the geometry of a picture: the art of drawing on a tablet what we should see through the tablet if it were transparent.

To be perfectly respectable, a science must trace up to some disputed passage of a classical author; perspective begins in Vitruvius, and with as much of difficulty as could be reasonably desired. In the preface to the seventh book Vitruvius gives an account, for contrast with himself, of Zeolus, of whom he himself cannot exactly tell whether he was crucified, or stoned, or burnt: but whichever it was it served him right. He, Vitruvius, is quite a different sort of person, who starts in a proper way from what his predecessors in architectural writing have done: for Agatharchus first painted a scene in perspective. The passage is as follows in the Bipont edition:—

"*Idcirco tales ingressus eorum habens, quos ad propositi*

mei rationes animadverti preparamus, inde sumendo progredi cepti. Namque primum Agatharchus Athenis, Æschylus docente tragediam, scenam fecit, et de ea commentarium reliquit. Ex eo moniti Democritus et Anaxagoras de eadem re scripserunt, quemadmodum oportet ad aciem oculorum radiorumque extensionem, certo loco centro constituto, ad lineas ratione naturali responderi: uti de incerta re certæ imagines edificiorum in scenarum picturis redderent speciem, et quas in directis planisque frontibus sint figurate, alia abscedentia, alia prominentia esse viderantur. Postea Silenus de symmetriis Doricorum edidit volumen . . ."

Here is a perfect description of a perspective design, in all that relates to the *point of sight*, or *centre*, to which all the picture lines run whose originals recede direct from the picture. Here is one *vanishing point*, to use another technical term, by knowledge of which Agatharchus drew a scene for the tragedy of Æschylus. The abruptness of the introduction does not seem to have troubled the critics. For myself, I have long been accustomed to consider Vitruvius as a sort of stocking with nothing but darna,—a text entirely composed of conjectural emendations. This, no doubt, is an error in extent; but it resembles the error of supposing the orbit of a planet to be an ellipse: either is a good first approximation, and small corrections can be applied as they are wanted. To conjecture the way back, it is a good plan for a person who has not access to manuscripts or old editions to procure an old translation. In the present passage, the translation made by Jan Martin for Henry II. of France (Paris, 1547, folio), one of the oldest of all, has, in the place of *Namque primum*, the words *en laquelle l'ay fait comme*; and Vitruvius, in his exhibition of his predecessors, is made to compare himself to the draughtsman, who gives a representation of objects in due relations of size and prominence. There seems more sense in this than in dashing into a list of writers on architecture by an account of the invention of scene perspective. Whether Jan Martin found sense, or made it, is a point which I leave to those who can consult unamended texts.

From all the accounts of tragedy in the time of Æschylus, it seems next to impossible that he could have had painted scenes, or any scenes at all. Accordingly, some scholars, noting that Aristotle expressly says that Sophocles was the first who used scenes, and that Horace says that Æschylus was the first who made a stage of planks or beams, have inferred that Vitruvius is speaking of the *stage*, and not of the *scenes*. The use of an elevated platform is not exactly a method of representing on a plane the far and near of buildings by lines converging to a point. But it seems there have been those who thought Vitruvius more likely to have meant this than to have named Æschylus when he ought to have named Sophocles. And yet those scholars must have known that their author was far from impeccable: for instance, he had just given Zeolus a palpably wrong date. It really is a question whether Vitruvius or his transcribers must answer for the invention of the astronomers Eudemon, Callistus, and Melo. The Bipont editors have only reinstated *Calippus*; whether the more recent editors have done as much for *Eutemon* and *Meton* I do not know.

The old text made Æschylus another designer, the teacher of Agatharchus; probably omitting the word *tragediam*. And this error, if it be one, got about: Barbaro, presently mentioned, spread it in Italy, Montucla in France, Cowley in England. Jan Martin says that Agatharchus acted *à la suasion d'Æschylus son précepteur*. Perhaps Vitruvius wrote *Æschylus suadente*, which became by corruption *docente*, by critical emendation *docente tragediam*, good technical Latin for exhibiting a tragedy. This again I must leave to those who can judge. My business is to show that Perspective has a proper dignity of origin, though certainly it cannot compete with the invention of the representation of the heavens on a globe. Few readers are now aware that this has been attributed to Nausicaa, who played at ball with her companions on the Phæacian beach when the washing was done, and awoke the shipwrecked Ulysses. Little could Homer imagine that a Corcyrean lady who tried her hand at grammar would twist his words into an account of the invention of the sphere of the heavens; and that serious writers would hand

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down the tale until a German professor, Weidler, would find it requisite to give it as part of the mythology of astronomical history. And Weidler has acquitted himself with such gravity that Montucla—to whom my copy of Weidler belonged—wrote the indignant word *sottise* opposite to the entry in the index, *Nauicaea invenit sphaeram*. Some other writers have done the young lady a better turn by making Telemachus marry her,—the least he could do after her handsome behaviour to his father, and what any modern novel writer would have remembered; but sometimes *bonus dormitat Homerus*.

The above is not altogether digression, for it is necessary to take the sphere of the heavens away from the Phœcean princess; and if we give her Telemachus instead, it will be better for all parties. The representation of the sphere is the next great step in perspective; it was made by Hipparchus (B.C. 150) in what is now called the *stereographic projection*. This is the oldest picture on record of which the details are known. The eye is placed, on the sphere, opposite the lowest point of the hemisphere which is to be represented, and the picture plane is the circle which divides the two hemispheres. This is a very bad place for the eye; much too near to the picture: but there is full compensation in the two remarkable properties which this place of the eye exclusively possesses. First, all circles on the sphere are circles in the picture; secondly, the angle made by two circles on the sphere is the same as the angle made by their representations in the picture. This second property was unknown to Hipparchus; and no one of the long chain of writers on the planisphere detected it. Not that it was well away; the tremendous work of Clavius on the astrolabe, many of the demonstrations of which have such complex diagrams that the woodcuts are repeated three and even four times in one proposition, to save the student from utter despair, would have been cut down to a comparative trifle if Clavius had known the second property. Even when discovered, it excited so little remark that the name of the discoverer was allowed to become unknown. Delambre could trace it no further than to the works of a respectable but obscure author of a century and a half ago, Leadbetter by name. The late Mr. Galloway traced it to Halley, who says he received it from De Moivre, who is probably the discoverer, for he is very unlikely to have been routing old authors on a subject so little akin to his own pursuits, even supposing the property to have been thus obtainable. It is singular that, often as the stereographic meridians and parallels had been carefully laid down for the construction of maps, no good eye had ever taken hold of the fact that every meridian cuts the parallels at right angles on the map, the same as on the globe.

For a long time this was the only projection of the sphere in use, and so it got the name of *stereographic*, as if it were the only stereograph; and of the *planisphere*, as if it were the only way of representing a sphere on a plane. The first work on this projection is by Ptolemy, who does not expressly attribute the invention to Hipparchus, to whom, throughout his writings, he seems to give all he can. Other Greek writers give it to Hipparchus, who certainly must have had some mode of figuring the heavens, and of drawing deductions from his diagrams. The probable truth is, that Ptolemy found enough in the works of his predecessor to indicate the existence of this projection in the mind of the writer; and that he himself investigated the demonstrations and developments which are found in his own tract.

No two things could be more severed in thought than these two applications of one principle; to this day the scene-painters and the map-makers have little or no notion of their arts being in very close relation. But I cannot leave the Greek period without taking notice of a third perspective undertaking, the most celebrated of the three. The Conic Sections, which Apollonius (B.C. 200), and perhaps some of his predecessors, made a systematic branch of geometry, are nothing but perspective representations of a circle, in the widest sense. It would, perhaps, have been well for geometry if Apollonius had taken a hint from the

scene-painter, and had introduced the use of the vanishing point, or rather the inverse passage from the converging lines to their original parallels. In our century an immense body of geometry, of generality far exceeding that of the Greeks, has been constructed upon the perspective principle. So easy is this geometry of projections that the Tough-yarn family object to it; I mean the descendants of the schoolmaster mentioned by Walter Scott, who prided himself on having drawn up a memorial which it would take a week to understand. I should prefer, if I knew the name, to derive them from the gentleman who hesitated at paying his dentist, saying, "Sir! the last man pulled me about the room for a quarter of an hour, but you have done it at a jerk." More than thirty years ago, I showed a teacher from the country some models for teaching solid geometry, to avoid the confusion which arises from drawing solids on a plane. He asked me whether I was not afraid of making the subject too easy; I could but answer that, let it be as easy as it might, there was plenty of trouble ready up above. And this is the case with the new projective geometry, and with all other branches of thought: make a plaything of what *was* difficult, and you will find no more than a difficulty in what *was* impossible.

The reader will find a collection of places in which classical writers refer to perspective in the work of Dutens on the discoveries of the ancients, who refers to Plato, Pliny, Lucian, and Philostratus. But he has missed Heron, whom Stevinus mentions as alluding to the subject. Dutens, strange to say, did not know Heron, and so has missed the steam-engine as an ancient discovery. For certainly Heron did describe a steam-engine, which would have ground corn at, perhaps, a shilling the quarter loaf.

I now leave the Greeks, and shall proceed, in the next number, to the earliest modern European history of the subject.

A. DE MORGAN.

POPULAR ASTRONOMY IN SIAM.

Bangkok, July 20, 1861.

I was sitting pondering in the verandah of my residence—it was the 27th of February, 1858—deeply depressed in my mind, for I had just returned from the sick-bed of one of the junior officers attached with me to the Consular Service, and there seemed no hope of his surviving many hours. It was full moon; the orb shining under all its tropical splendour rendered every boat floating on the river distinctly visible. An hour might have passed thus pensively when the stillness previously prevailing was broken, as if by preconcerted signal, from all parts of the town, far and near; the air was rent by the cry and shouting of the people; muskets and heavy guns were fired, and the bells in the Wats, or Buddhist temples, mixed their sonorous peals in the general stir. Crackers and squibs, which were let off in numerous directions, conveyed the idea of a well-maintained platoon fire. Is this an insurrection, a rebellion? thought I. An uproar like this I had never heard before since my sojourn in Bangkok. I summoned the servants of the house, and now I learned that the moon had just commenced to be eclipsed; and that, according to the belief of the Siamese, they thought that luminary attacked by a great dragon. For the purpose of assisting her in the contest, and to scare away the monster, these noises were made. I believe a similar idea prevails amongst the Chinese. Shortly before twelve o'clock that night Mr. F. breathed his last. It made a deep impression upon us who were engaged with him in the Consular duties, and, I believe, upon numerous others. One of our colleagues, attacked by the same disease, had already been sent to England a few weeks previously, as a chance for recovery, and at his departure Mr. F. enjoyed the best of health. Five months later I suffered from the same disease, and I was sent for recovery to Anhing, on the eastern bank of the Gulf of Siam, so famed for its salubrity that the King, who himself has a cottage there, calls it the Sanatorium for Europeans. Those were lonely days which I passed there; but I soon got strength, and, after a three weeks' sojourn, I considered myself well enough to

return to my duties in Bangkok. The pretty schooner, the Coral Queen, once the yacht of a noble Earl of authority in the Royal Yacht Squadron, came to convey me back to Bangkok. Her present master and owner had his lady on board, and several gentlemen availed themselves of the opportunity to pay a short visit to Anhing. Towards evening we got under way. It was annoying that we should have run on a sandbank at night, near the bar, and there we were lying until late in the following afternoon; the schooner bumping, and the sun shining in all its force upon us. At last we got off; the tide being with us, we reached the mouth of the Niernam speedily, and passed Packnam. The moon was full and bright, the evening lovely, and—what a wonder!—there were but few mosquitoes; and we sat on the quarter-deck, enjoying the cool air, after our sunning on the sandbank. We were now approaching a reach of the river, where there were some Wats and a Burmese village; and, from both banks of the river, such an uproar arose, caused by the beating of drums, sounding of conchs, the beating of tin pans and other noisy instruments, intermixed with shouting and the discharge of musketry, that the little company on the schooner's quarter-deck looked inquiringly at each other. This sudden change, where shortly previously all had been hushed—the ripple of the water on the vessel's bow in making her way, and our conversation, the only interruption—was certainly very marked; but it was soon explained,—a glance at the moon showed us that the shadow of the earth was creeping upon her. The thick fringe of trees along the bank of the river hid our schooner from the multitude assembled to assist the moon in her struggle. Our skipper of the Coral Queen intended to astonish them. Two large rockets rose simultaneously from her deck, exploding over the rabble. What a shout they set up! the noise of the ascending rockets and the bursting overhead was so sudden. Mayhap they imagined the dragon himself come down upon them. We could not help on board of the Coral Queen bursting out in loud laughter, and even assisted them in shouting. The tide was now against us, and the schooner had to come to anchor. I arrived next morning in Bangkok, almost entirely restored from the attack of the pernicious disease.

These reminiscences, as just related, have been called back to my memory by the eclipse of the sun of the 8th of July this year. As merely a partial eclipse, only about eight or nine digits lying under the shadow, it was very interesting, the atmosphere at Bangkok being clear. So accurate had been the calculations of the King of Siam's astrologers, that at the instant when the faint shadow or penumbra showed itself on the disk, and forthwith the bells of the Wats began to toll, the platoon-fire of the crackers commenced, as on the former occasion, intermixed with musketry and great guns. Equal in precision as the commencement was pronounced, all noise ceased when the shadow commenced to pass away.

It is certainly astonishing how correct the Siamese astronomers are in their calculations with regard to heavenly phenomena. Their method is crude. M. de La Loubere, the Envoy of Louis the Great to Siam, in 1687, brought, on his return to Paris, a Siamese manuscript with him referring to their calculations of the movements of the sun and moon, which Cassini, the celebrated Academician, explained. He remarks, that the method adopted is extraordinary. No tables are used, only the four arithmetical rules, namely, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of certain numbers, of which neither their formation nor to what they relate becomes evident.

Attached to the king's household are a number of astrologers and prognosticators. Dr. Bradley, in his 'Bangkok Calendar for 1860,' tells us that P'ra hora tibawdee, with a salary of one hundred and twenty ticals (about 15*l.*) per annum; Koon chopt tomma palat Krom, with forty ticals (5*l.*); and Koon teppa Yakawn palat Krom, with an equal stipend, are the superintending officers of that department. Their small salaries give another proof of the assertion, that the value of a prophet is underrated in his own country. In former reigns, when their prognostications turned out false, they

received a sound castigation. Whether that practice still exists I cannot tell.

Wonders do not cease. So closely upon the eclipse of the sun a comet makes its appearance! The King, to allay the fears of his subjects, issues a royal proclamation, a regular broad sheet (you receive herewith a copy, which the Rev. Samuel J. Smith, Baptist Missionary, has had the goodness to translate for me). It is highly curious, but much too long for insertion in the *Athenæum*. I shall quote merely the commencement and some of its particular points. It is headed, "A Royal Proclamation":—

"Be it known to all Government Servants, great and small, and all the inhabitants, Siamese and Chinese, that in the year Ra:ka (Cock), third of the Decade, there will be a comet as in the year Ma:mé (Horse), tenth of the Decade. But an accurate statement as to the precise day when it will appear, and how long it will be visible, cannot yet be made. When the proclamation for the New Year was issued, there would have been a remark on that subject, but reliable detail was not in readiness. Events of this kind can be pre-announced. Some of them with great precision, as solar and lunar eclipses; others of them can be announced only as events that do, or are about to take place. Therefore, let not those who see them fear, nor let them say what may create disturbances."—"With reference to strange phenomena that have appeared in the heavens, if evils arise from them, two kinds have been noticed: 1st, scarcity of rain during the rainy season, or a superabundance of rain; 2ndly, varieties of diseases afflict men, elephants, horses, oxen and buffaloes. As when the comet at the close of the year Ra:ka (Cock), tenth of the Decade, made its appearance, there was a pestilence, causing at one time the death of many buffaloes; and in the rainy season of the year Ma:mé (Horse), there was a drought; then, at the close of the year Ma:mé and the commencement of the year Wok (Monkey), the Cholera raged."

In continuation of this admonition, the King advises his subjects to be industrious, in order to avoid scarcity; and should there be apprehensions of disease, as, for example, small-pox, they should hasten to the places appointed for vaccination. If the cholera makes its appearance, then they must accustom themselves to cleanliness and not retain their previous filthy habits. In order to purify the air, they should burn in their houses gum benjamin, and use camphor-water externally and internally.

Various other exhortations follow. Then he states:—"The King is respected by the masses as a protector. Persons in distress from litigation and other causes appeal to him for assistance, as children in difficulty appeal to their parents. Therefore the King is designated as one whom the people honour in the manner they do their parents, and he is affectionately disposed towards them, as in the same manner parents are truly and tenderly disposed towards their children. He therefore puts forth these suggestions that his subjects may protect their persons and lives, in anticipation that calamities might come, instances of which already there have been known."

The King continues his remonstrances, and amongst other remarks, he likewise refers to the superstitious belief that comets are the precursors of war; but he says:—"When wars take place, it is because men with each other create the causes. Comets do not incite men to war"—a maxim which I wish to press upon the minds of those who rule the destinies of the East and the West."

ROBERT H. SCHOMBURGK.

BAVARIAN LAW OF MARRIAGE.

Near Munich, Sept. 1861.

I went a few days ago to see a peasant's marriage in the village church. To the wedding guests I should suppose the ceremony in the church was the least interesting part of the day, but to me it offered greater attractions than the eating, drinking and dancing, which lasted from eight in the morning till eight at night, with only an hour's interval for the marriage service. Though I say the wedding guests, you must not suppose that the fact of their being invited frees them from expense:

they are rather hosts than guests, for the chief costs of the music and food have to be defrayed by their contributions. Every one is expected to give from nine to fourteen shillings as his share of the entertainment, and consequently on this occasion many rich peasants absented themselves for trivial reasons.

The little village church wore an air of unusual importance as the time drew near. Two violins climbed into the organ gallery, accompanied by a chorus. Soon after the wedding party appeared, the men in long coats almost touching the ground, and adorned with those white metal buttons particularly affected by the peasants, as they are often *Zwanzigers*, and enable men to wear their purses upon their coats—an improvement on Iago. The married women wore a black hat made of otter's fur, and costing about thirty-five shillings, in shape and look like a muff sewed up at one end. The unmarried had black peaked hats of the Vandylke order, with a gold cord twisted round. The bride appeared in married costume. Her dress consisted of a long black silk apron, bodice and sleeves in one piece, into which a handkerchief fitted at the top, so as to cover the shoulders and give most opportunity for colour. This is not a bride's usual dress, but its adoption is explained by reasons that unfortunately apply to a great number of Bavarian weddings. The Church does not allow brides who have children already to appear in the white raiment and the wreath that typify virgin innocence. I am told that a peasant who was found guilty of deceiving the church in this respect, and marrying in the virgin apparel to which she was not entitled, was fined about 20*l*.

But we are waiting in the church while the procession enters. The best man, with an air of great importance, which never deserts him from first to last, brings a basket holding two bottles of wine, and gives it to the sacristan. Then the pair come to the altar; the service is read, and the union is consummated by the priest binding their hands together with two lappets that hang from his shoulders. The mass now begins, with full orchestral accompaniment. The worthy parish priest seems rather puzzled by Gregorian requirements, and intones with an amount of original quavering, pronouncing the words first and then huddling in the notes, that would scarcely be accepted by amateurs of Catholic Church music. So long as instruments and singers keep together, the effect is creditable; but every now and then a bit of solo breaks in, and ends in a squeak, which has to be drowned by vigorous *ensemble*. After the mass, the sacristan brought out the two bottles of wine; and the whole wedding party passed round behind the altar in rotation, making an offering in a little plate as they went in, and drinking some of the wine when they came out. The bridegroom drank first, then the bride, then all the men, then all the women, and the priest placed the glass to their lips. On leaving the church, the newly-married couple distributed copper pieces among the children of the village, the bride giving to the girls, the bridegroom to the boys.

Such was the marriage ceremony that I witnessed; and I do not describe it merely as a national show, but rather for the purpose of alluding to the marriage laws of Bavaria, and the effect they have on the people. I have already referred casually to the difficulties put in the way of marriage; and many facts have come to my knowledge since I treated the subject. The question is intimately connected with the question of free trade, which has just been debated in the Bavarian Chambers, and ended in a victory of the Reactionary party. Allusions were made to the marriage law, and the proletariat of illegitimate children produced by it, by some of the speakers; and, in some of the writings on the free-trade question, I find similar references. One pamphleteer defends the restrictions on trade as being restrictions on marriage, and asks, what would become of towns if every one in them was allowed to marry? Another, on the opposite side, traces the process of a forbidden marriage, and shows that the only result is the birth of illegitimate children, and that the support of ille-

gitimate children, with the constantly recurring expenses of applying for permission to marry, costs far more than a legitimate marriage would have cost, besides giving no return whatever for the money. "While I am writing this," he says, "my servant girl, aged fifteen years, comes in dressed for a feast-day, and says that her father and mother are to be married to-day, so that she must henceforth be called by her father's name. Twelve times her father's application for licence to marry was rejected, and each time he had to pay fees for lawyers," &c. &c. I told you in a former letter of a couple who tried to get married in vain for fifteen years, and spent in that time two hundred florins on their applications. I may add on my own knowledge that of two servants I had this last winter, one was engaged eighteen years, the other seven, during which her lover married another woman for money, and returned to her on the death of his first wife. The mere application for permission is expensive. It has to be made in writing to the magistrate, has to be protocolled, and referred to a body of "trustees of the community"; the magistrate's answer is also in writing, and is sent by a messenger. It is quite intelligible that, when all this bureaucracy has to be set in motion for the mere purpose of deciding if two poor people shall be allowed to marry, the poor people's money must go to defray other expenses than those of maintaining their family.

E. W.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

THE Duke of Manchester, we hear, is engaged in preparing from his family papers a couple of volumes for the press, illustrative of the history of English society from Queen Elizabeth to Queen Anne. The work is expected for the coming season.

The late Duke of Buckingham left behind him a private diary, which diary is to be immediately published. No man in our time led a stranger life, or lived more behind the political scenes, than the late Duke. If he has entered truly what he saw and what he heard, his book must be curious in the highest degree.

Mr. Murray has in the press, among other novelties for the coming season, 'The Story of Lord Bacon's Life,' in which all the known materials for an estimate of the Great Philosopher will be brought together, and an answer will be made—by way of narrative—to the misrepresentations of the critics of his career.

Mr. Charles Darwin has prepared for publication a small work, containing his experience 'On the Fertilization of British Orchids by means of Insects.' It will form a sort of sequel to his work, the 'Origin of Species.'

The long-announced volumes on the Crimean War, by Mr. Kinglake, are, at length, in a forward state. The third and fourth volumes of Mr. Carlyle's 'Frederick the Great' are rapidly approaching completion. These works may be confidently expected during the coming year.

Capt. Burton, the traveller, is, we hear, writing an account of his experiences of Mormon life, under the title of 'The City of the Saints.'

Mr. H. F. Chorley has in the press a book of personal gossip, called, 'Twenty-Five Years of Musical Recollections.'

The Messrs. Longman, among many other novelties, have in the press or in preparation, Lives of 'Sir M. I. Brunel,' by Mr. R. Beamish, and of 'John Rogers,' by Mr. J. L. Chester,—'A Narrative of the China War of 1860,' by Lieut.-Col. Wolseley,—'The Chase of the Wild Deer in the Counties of Devon and Somerset,' by Mr. C. P. Collyns,—Volumes VIII. and IX. of Mr. Spedding's edition of Lord Bacon's works,—'Thebes, its Tombs and their Tenants,' by Mr. A. H. Rhind,—'Egypt's Place in Universal History,' a translation from the German of Baron Bunsen, by Mr. C. H. Cottrell,—and a 'History of Market Drayton,' by the Rev. J. R. Lee.

Messrs. Hurst & Blackett are preparing for the next season, besides two or three works which we have already named separately, 'The Life and Correspondence of Admiral Sir Charles Napier,

K.C.B., by Major-Gen. Napier,—‘The Life of the Rev. Edward Irving,’ by Mrs. Oliphant,—‘Literary Women of France,’ by Miss Kavanagh,—‘Travels in the Holy Land,’ by Fredrika Bremer, translated by Mary Howitt,—‘Memoirs of Queen Hortense (mother of Napoleon the Third),’ edited by Lascelles Wrexall, and ‘Lights and Shadows of French Military Life,’ by the Author of ‘Flemish Interiors.’

We have to record a handsome concession on the part of the Spanish Government—the opening up of the great archives at Simancas to the deputies of our Master of the Rolls. The interest of the papers at Simancas cannot be overestimated. They are the documentary history of Spain, and of all the countries which have had political relations with Spain. From the reign of Henry the Eighth to the time of Cromwell they are of vast importance for our own history, and every student working in recent years upon those periods, has turned wistfully but unavailingly towards Simancas for the light which it, and it only, could afford. The priestly influence was against all search. At length, the embargo has been taken off. Mr. Brewer, of the Rolls, has just returned from Simancas, where it has been arranged that Mr. Bergenroth, a most competent English and Spanish scholar, shall calendar and abstract the documents relating to our history.

Mr. John Brougham’s burlesque, ‘Po-ca-hon-tas,’ which created quite a furor in the United States, will be produced at the Princess’s on Monday. It is founded on one of the most generally known stories associated with Indian life.

The next character undertaken by Mr. Edwin Booth at the Haymarket will be Sir Giles Overreach, in Massinger’s ‘A New Way to Pay Old Debts.’

Mr. Alfred Wigan will re-open the St. James’s Theatre on Monday, the 14th inst.

There are so many erroneous ideas on the Continent as respects the space proposed to be devoted to the Fine Arts in the forthcoming Exhibition of 1862, especially in comparison with that in Paris in 1855, that it seems very desirable to correct them. The building for the Fine Arts in England is of a far more substantial character than that in the *Allée Marboeuf*. The one is of brick and iron, intended to be permanent; the other was of timber and plaster, and only temporary. On this account, if on no other, there will be much less space in England than in Paris. According to official documents, the *Rez de Chaussée* in Paris, devoted to oil-pictures only, contained 12,503 square metres of hanging space, or about 171,633 square feet, of which France, according to the account of ‘Prince Napoleon’s Visits,’ retained 7,445 square metres or full three-fifths. The upper gallery at Paris contained about 3,100 square metres, of which France retained four-fifths. In England, the whole space devoted to the Fine Arts contains only 72,068 square feet of hanging space, less than half that in Paris; and this England equally divides with foreign nations, retaining only 36,034 square feet, or exactly one-half. England asked in Paris 12,000 square feet of wall space for paintings in oil and water-colour engravings and works of architecture; and, according to Mr. Redgrave’s accurate report, occupied 10,490 square feet, being considerably less than one-sixteenth of the whole French space. France has been accorded 10,000 square feet of space for 1862, which is nearly one-seventh of the whole space for the Fine Arts. And when it is remembered that she has no school of water-colour painters to provide for, the proportion in her favour is still greater. In 1855, England took a small side gallery, whilst the large saloons were appropriated by France and other Continental nations. In 1862, all the space will be equally excellent, and equally divided, not only as to area, but as to the nature and structure of the galleries between England and the countries she has invited. Moreover, the United Kingdom is to be represented by the works of a hundred years, whilst in France the works were those of living artists.

Arthur Smith, the angler, died on Tuesday, at the early age of thirty-seven. Mr. Smith was the younger brother of Albert, and for many years

the business manager of the Mont Blanc Exhibition. To him the bulk of Mr. Albert Smith’s property was left by will, and it is no great secret that Arthur made an exceedingly kind and liberal construction of the will as regards the other parties nearly concerned. His memory will be cherished by many friends.

A friend who has been interested by the recent extract in the *Athenæum* on the Crown Jewels, sends us the following Official Report on the Tower Fire in 1841. Many of our readers will be glad to read it in connexion with Prof. Tennant’s admirable description of the Imperial Crown, already quoted in these columns:—

“To the Commissioners of Police, Whitehall Place.

“Gentlemen,—Having received information, at 11 o’clock P.M., on the 30th of October, that the Tower of London was on fire, I proceeded at once with a large body of police towards that fortress. On reaching Tower Hill at a quarter-past 11 o’clock at night, I perceived that the fire had gained a considerable ascendancy, and was rapidly increasing. On obtaining an entrance through the gates, I proceeded towards the small Armoury, which I found on fire, both on the right and left of the principal entrance, and the flames rapidly descending from the roof to the first and ground floors. I gave directions to the inspectors and constables under my charge to render every possible assistance in checking the fire and saving property, and I feel it but an act of justice to the inspectors and constables to say, that their exertions exceeded anything I have ever witnessed. At about half-past 11 o’clock at night I saw Superintendent M’Clean, of the ‘P’ Division, who was assisting in removing arms, &c. Perceiving the flames were rapidly approaching the Jewel House, I expressed my deep anxiety to him for the safety of the valuable treasure deposited therein. Mr. Swift, who had charge of the Crown Jewels, came up an instant afterwards, on his way to the Jewel House; I suggested to him that the jewels ought to be at once removed, as the building where they were deposited was in danger. Mr. Swift replied, that he was thinking of removing them, and requested us to accompany him to the Jewel House, which we did. A Mr. Palford, of the Croydon Railroad, was also there. On reaching the Jewel House, the outer door was opened by Mr. Swift. On entering, I perceived that the jewels could not be got at, there being a strong iron grating between us and those valuable treasures. Mr. Swift here gave directions to the warders to force the grating, in which we assisted, and after much difficulty an aperture was made sufficient to admit one person. I, by the desire of Mr. Swift, forced myself through, as it was very narrow; Mr. M’Clean and Mr. Swift were standing outside the aperture, and Mr. M’Clean held a candle through the bars to light me, and received, with Mr. Swift, the Regalia, as I handed it to them. The first that attracted my attention was the new crown in a glass case, and having removed the latter, I handed the crown to Mr. Swift. I then removed the case off a second crown, and handed it to the same gentleman; and all the other valuable articles, consisting of crowns, royal spurs, sceptres, bracelets, swords, salt-cellers and a service of Communion-plate, which I passed through without difficulty to those gentlemen; but on reaching the last article, a silver font, I found the aperture not large enough, and in consequence, Mr. M’Clean, Mr. Palford and a warder of the Tower, by united efforts with a large crowbar, broke away another bar of the grating. While this was being effected, there were repeated cries for us to leave the Jewel House, as the fire was at our heels. Superintendent M’Clean said, ‘Pierse, don’t stir till you have got the font.’ I resolved not to move till I had secured it. It was carried out by the warder, assisted by Mr. M’Clean and Mr. Palford. As we emerged from the dark passage, the heat was so great as to shrink up my hat, and burn the tail of Mr. M’Clean’s coat, besides suffering on our faces from the intense heat. Afterwards, Mr. M’Clean asked Mr. Swift if he knew the faces of the men who removed the jewelry to the Governor’s house, and he replied that they were the warders, and I said, ‘Then it is all right.’ I immediately after-

wards accompanied Mr. Swift to the Governor’s house, and there saw that the whole of the jewels and various articles, which I had previously handed out of the Jewel Room, were perfectly safe.

W. F. PIERSE, Superintendent.”

—We are sorry to hear that no reward was ever bestowed on Mr. Pierse for his gallant behaviour.

Our Correspondent “Cantab,” writing from Norton Malton, October 1, 1861, makes some additional remarks on the interesting church at Bridlington, in Yorkshire:—

“I was somewhat astonished to find myself accused of omissions in my remarks on the old Priory Church, at Bridlington. I intentionally omitted reference to many things, or should have alluded, amongst others, to the fine font, the new pulpit of wood and stone, of very chaste and elegant design, the large western perpendicular window partially filled with stained glass, and the new stained-glass east window, inserted within the last twelve months in the place of two of very mean and inefficient description. Of it, of course, no notice could be expected in the ‘Guide-Book.’ The pattern is of the Jesse order, the colours of the draperies being very rich, and the prevailing ground tone a delicate blue. With regard to the church collar, I think your Weekly Gossip intends it to be inferred that it was only used as an instrument of punishment for ‘turbulent boys.’ This, however, was not the case. The last time it did duty was about forty years ago; and it was then worn by a man who had been guilty of some misdemeanour. It is attached to the pillar at such a short distance from the floor of the nave that it would be impossible for the culprit to stand in an upright position. I may be wrong, but I am under the strong impression that the restoration work, executed a few years since under the direction of Mr. Scott, was chiefly, if not altogether, confined to the interior of the church. Certainly the roof of the north aisle was in such bad condition last year that the rain found its way through, and did serious injury to the organ. I may add that there is a very interesting drawing in the vestry, representing the exterior of the church, with its two fine western towers, &c., according to the original plan of its size and arrangement. The foundations of the walls which surrounded the church and priory buildings may still be traced in the fields. The site of the fishpond is also clearly discernible, and the archery butts still form two mounds in a field near the ‘Applegarth,’ the ground originally occupied by the priory orchard.”

Dr. Pantaleone, eminent as a man of science, and as a physician so well known to the English at Rome, from which city he was expelled by the Papal Government early this year, is about to settle at Nice, where he will resume practice.

The recent death of Madame Rose-Chéri, occasioned by her natural devotion to her sick child, took all Paris completely by surprise. On Friday, the 20th ult., there was not the slightest symptoms of the approaching calamity, and on the following Sunday she had fallen a victim to one of the most fatal species of sore-throat. Her funeral, which took place on Tuesday, the 24th, was attended by an immense throng of celebrities in art and literature, the chief mourners being MM. E. Lemoine, Lesueur, and Victor Chéri. The religious offices were performed in the church at Passy, whence the train proceeded to the cemetery at Montmartre. Orations were spoken at the tomb by Baron Taylor, M. Léon Laya and M. Samson, who respectively represented the Association of Dramatic Artists, the Dramatic Authors’ Society, and the Comédie Française. Madame Rose-Chéri was born at Étampes, on the 27th of October, 1824. Her parents were Baptiste Cizos and Sophie Juliette Garcin, both provincial artists, and she appeared on the stage at the early age of five. She came to Paris with a letter of recommendation addressed to M. Bayard, but though she was immediately engaged at the Gymnase, she held but an humble position until, on account of the sudden indisposition of Mlle. Nathalie, she played at a short notice the principal female character in ‘Une Jeunesse Orageuse.’ In less than a month her celebrity was established, and she remained almost to the day of her death the leading star of

the Gymnase. Her marriage with M. Montigny, director of that fashionable house, took place in 1847. She has left three children, the eldest of whom is six years of age.

Germany has lost her greatest historian, and the University of Heidelberg its brightest ornament. Prof. Friedrich Christoph Schlosser died on the morning of the 23rd of September. Born, in 1776, at Jever, in East Friesland (the liberating breath of the sea may be felt in all his works), he attained the rare old age of eighty-five years. A strong constitution enabled him to work with an energy and perseverance seldom to be met with, and to produce a series of historical works which, by their vast and solid learning, their copiousness, their sound judgment and their strictly moral stamp, have made his name an undying one in German literature. Schlosser has contributed largely to the diffusion of historical knowledge throughout Germany, and his influence on the reigning views taken of Church and State cannot be too highly appreciated. Last year he had the satisfaction of seeing completed the fourth edition of his famous History of the Eighteenth Century. His last work, a volume of Studies on his favourite author, Dante, appeared a few years ago.

Further discoveries of antique marbles have been made at Cyrene by the expedition under the command of Lieuts. Smith and Porcher, who have, as noticed in the *Athenæum*, already sent a valuable consignment of similar relics of Art to the British Museum. What the Trustees intend to do with these works it is difficult to surmise, the hideous sheds which have for some years disfigured the grand portico in Great Russell Street being almost filled with the beautiful sculptures Mr. Newton brought home. Some of the new marbles, which were in fragments, have within the last few days been put together and may now be seen, on application, at the British Museum. They consist of a splendid statue of Apollo, about seven feet high with the lyre in one hand, resting on a stump, round which circles a serpent. The head of the god, which, as is most common in statues of the period in which it was executed, is rather small, has a noble and dignified expression; the hair is clustered and knotted behind, crowned with laurel, which last is characteristically somewhat stumpy, that is, the leaves are small in proportion to the size of the stalk sustaining them. The original surface of the whole work is in a wonderful state of preservation, being very clear and white and sharp. The one hand resting on the lyre, the other has been thrown up above the head, as in the statue of the Apollino; the figure is naked above the hips, where the drapery is gathered in free folds, to fall to the feet, which are sandalled, the sandals bearing a great heart-shaped shield or stud holding the thong between the toes. These extremities are rather large, and therefore a little out of proportion. The lyre is a good deal broken, and, as might be expected, imperfect; it is decorated with a row of small shields along the frame, such as the Amazons are usually represented as holding on their arms. There are holes in the bow for metal strings. On the stump by the side of the statue is a bow and quiver. A statue of Bacchus, rather smaller than the preceding, does not equal it in design or execution, being liny, and is decidedly later in date. This work is also naked to the hips, the robe, however, returning behind the back and drooping from one shoulder in front. It is perfect in preservation, with the exception of one arm lost and some very trifling injuries to the draperies; with the remaining arm the statue holds a bunch of grapes. A small statue of Jupiter Ammon, represented, as on the coins of Cyrene, horned, and, as such a unique example in sculpture, we believe. Amongst these works are also two other small statues, one certainly representing Juno: these are hardly so meritorious in design or execution as even the Bacchus. Far superior to these are two minor statues, and several finely wrought fragments, notably one of a leg, a portion of a draped male figure and six hands, all of which are worthy of attention. To us the most interesting of all these discovered re-

main is a small but most admirably designed group of a nymph struggling with a lion; the boldness and vigour of the execution of this small work are also considerable. Two well carved figures of boars and a score of less important fragments make up the list of statues in this interesting addition to our national collection.

SCIENCE

The Forests and Gardens of South India. By Hugh Cleghorn, M.D., Conservator of Forests, Madras Presidency. (Allen & Co.)

This volume will be useful to the officers of the forest department of Indian administration, and to students of the botany of Asia. The Conservator of Forests compiled it from official papers not easily accessible, during the scanty leisure of a twelvemonth's furlough on sick certificate. Dr. Cleghorn has not aimed at producing a book for the general reader, his style being formal and his matter fragmentary; but he has published a work containing much information of a valuable kind, and in a convenient form, for all whom it may concern, or every one interested theoretically or practically in the botany of India.

The Bombay Government laid claim to the forests of the western coast for the first time in 1805. The Company's right of sovereignty was proclaimed in 1807; and commissioners were appointed to fix the boundaries of the forests. Ever since then the conservancy of the forests has occupied more or less of the attention of the rulers of India. The races destined to rule the other varieties of mankind hate waste, being frugal and calculating; and the British in India, whilst promoting clearings to enlarge the area of the food-bearing soil, witnessed with disapprobation the reckless ravages of the native contractors and traders, who for present gain were producing pernicious and permanent denudation. The earliest reports published were those of Dr. Wallich, the first of which, on the Salween forest north of Moulmein, appeared in 1827. Dr. Wallich laid the foundation of a system of conservancy; but his rules were too stringent to last. Green timber continued to be felled; no attention was paid to the renewal of the trees; large logs were sawn up into short lengths; and often the felled timbers were left lying in the forest until burnt by the periodical fires. It was not until 1846, that the Forest Department was organized under the superintendence of Dr. Gibson. Naturally enough, the European nations of the Continent dependent upon wood for fuel, the French and Germans especially, have surpassed the English, who burn coal, in the study of forestry. It is only of late years that the importance of regulating the clearing of the Indian forests has forced itself upon public attention. A Report presented to the British Association for the Advancement of Science, in 1851, by a committee, consisting of Dr. Forbes Royle, Col. Baird Smith, Col. R. Strachey and Dr. Cleghorn, declared that neither the government nor the community were deriving the advantages they ought to receive from the Indian forests. These forests were wantonly destroyed and wastefully neglected; and valuable products were perishing in their depths. The denudation of the mountain crests is in temperate climes a source of serious evils, as the droughts and floods of France demonstrate amply; but in tropical countries the evils are proportionally far more important and grave, for there the water supply depends upon the forests, and upon the water supply depends the supply of food. Drought and famine are identical in India; and forestry is one of the arts by which the rulers of it must combat and prevent the

famines which still periodically decimate its millions of improvident people.

Considering the vast importance of the subject, we could have wished that the leisure of Dr. Cleghorn had permitted him to produce a more condensed and readable compilation than the volume before us. "It is simply," as he says himself, "a compilation of papers, commencing with three annual reports which indicate the progress of the department, and which are followed by a memorandum on Kumari,—an injurious practice which destroys vast quantities of the most valuable timber,—and by other memoranda bearing more or less on the subject of Indian forests." A chart shows the position and extent of the most valuable forests growing within the Madras Presidency, of teak, sal and sandalwood. The book is enlivened and illustrated by thirteen lithographs, representing forest life and scenery. A bibliography of Indian botany occupies sixteen pages of Dr. Cleghorn's volume; but "the remaining portion of it, having been too late for the printer, will appear in the next Forest Report." The Conservator of Forests has brought together much valuable information on Indian woods, not merely the well-known teak, sal, sandal, chittagong, ebony, black, satin and amboyna, but paley fustic and iron wood,—woods of all kinds, useful and useless, with strange properties and stranger names. He submits for discussion projects for soldiers' gardens; and suggestions of sites for new sanatoriums among mountain ranges, still roamed by wild elephants. In a word, Dr. Cleghorn's book, if not a meritorious literary composition, is a valuable contribution to the business of governing and improving British India.

SOCIETIES.

ENTOMOLOGICAL.—Sept. 2.—J. W. Douglas, Esq., President, in the chair.—Mr. Scott exhibited some Hemiptera, of species not yet recorded as British, found in the New Forest and Monmouthshire.—Mr. Douglas exhibited a large Noctua, the *Orodema apicina* of Guenée, found alive on board a ship in the London Docks, lately arrived from Porto Rico. This species is remarkable from the fact, that its native country is yet unknown, the few examples yet captured having all been found in this country, in situations which admit of no doubt that they have been accidentally imported.—Mr. Stevens and Mr. Brittingham exhibited some fine Coleoptera from South Africa and Assam.—Mr. Stainton exhibited *Nonagria Elymi* received from Stettin, and a male example of *Lasiocampa Querata*, from the Rev. J. O. Morris, remarkable for the abbreviated form of the antennæ.—Mr. Bond exhibited *Lithosia Caniola*, *Dianthia capsochila*, and an apparently new species of Hodena, taken by Mr. Barritt near Dublin during the present summer.—Prof. Westwood made some observations on the adhesion of the anthers of flowers to the heads of bees and other insects, and its supposed effect in assisting the fecundating process by causing the pollen granules to be conveyed from one flower to another: he exhibited two large species of Spheg from North America; he had lately observed these insects in the Oxford Museum to have, not only their heads, but their bodies and limbs completely covered with pollen masses.—Mr. J. Walker communicated some 'Notes on the Habits of certain Diptera, and the Parasites infesting them,' with descriptions of those not hitherto described.

MEETING FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.
Mon. Entomological, 8.

FINE ARTS

STONE OF THE NEW PALACE.

The Commons Committee have made their Report, which is so far satisfactory that we find the evil much less extensive than is commonly imagined.

The remaining conclusions of the committee are of a purely negative order. The objects of inquiry were:—the extent and position of the decay;—the causes to which it is attributable, taking into consideration the composition of the stone and the influences exerted upon it by moisture and the acids of a London atmosphere;—the best means of preserving the stone from further injury, and the qualities of the stone to be recommended for future use in public buildings to be erected in London. The committee carefully inspected the whole of the building, examined many witnesses who had been connected with it since the commencement or concerned in the processes employed for arresting its decay, and suggesters of other remedies. To a sub-committee of scientific chemists was delegated an examination of other metropolitan buildings in which magnesian limestone has been employed. The committee invited, by advertisement, that suggestions apt to the inquiry should be made to it. With regard to the extent and position of the decay it is difficult to give an exact account, but it appears to have first made its appearance on the earliest-executed portions of the building, about seven years after their erection,—the evil is, however, by no means limited to time in this way, seeing that some portions of quite recent erection, in Old Palace Yard, are in as bad a condition. In the earlier works, those towards the river, the decay is more apparent in the lower portion of the building, and is there confined to zones, or general levels, which would seem to suggest that it depends as much upon position in the building as upon the use of any particular beds of stone. In the newest work the decay occurs in more varied positions, and under circumstances which it is exceedingly difficult to appreciate. Contrary to common expectations, the committee found, on examining the upper and more exposed portions of the building, but little comparative damage, but in places, as in some of the inner courts, less exposed to the thorough effects of the weather, it was considerable, the worst spot being a small archway leading to the Reporters' Gallery, near the entrance to Westminster Hall. It is concluded, therefore, that the stone is much more liable to decay in damp and sheltered situations, than in open ones. "In the east and north fronts the worst symptoms occur in the ashlar between the upper and lower mouldings of the plinths, and under the first cornice, where the exposure is inconsiderable; but the dampness, arising from the drip of the mouldings and from the action of capillary attraction, in places where projections hold the moisture, appears to exercise an important influence." It does not appear that the placing of the stones in their natural bed, or in the same relative position as they occupied in the quarry, as is commonly supposed, has any influence on the decay or preservation of the building, for stones which were found horizontally in the quarry have often been placed perpendicularly in the building, and used for purposes of the most delicate decoration, without any injurious result. For instance, the elaborately-carved shields of arms under the range of the first-floor windows;—the stones used for these, though universally placed perpendicularly to their natural position in the quarry, present, so far as the committee are aware, few, if any, symptoms of decay. It is not easy to estimate the extent of the decay on the whole surface; for so recent a building it is doubtless considerable, but the change of colour in the stone, and the "fretting out of the surface," which are suggested as the first symptoms, cause apprehension that the mischief is more extensive than is actually apparent. One of the witnesses, Mr. T. Quarm, clerk of the works in chief under Sir C. Barry, thought the decay, after proceeding to some depth in the stone, stopped of itself, after which an induration of the stone took place, and the evil "healed up," as he phrased it. The committee do not consider this opinion a satisfactory one, notwithstanding some few indications in its favour. The injury appears for the most part on the plain surfaces, those more elaborated, unless under projections, being little affected. At present the decay does not affect the stability of the building. The causes of the decay are thus far elucidated. It appears that the originally accepted Bolsover

stone was found not obtainable in sufficiently large blocks; recourse was therefore had to that from the quarries at Mansfield Woodhouse, presumed to be the source of the material employed in the perfectly-preserved Southwell Minster; from the same cause this also was abandoned, after a considerable quantity was employed, which it is decided has since stood "remarkably well." Here we may stand amazed that a stone, found to be durable through ages of trial in the best-preserved building in England, should be abandoned because the blocks were small! We have not observed it to have been the custom of ancient architects to insist upon using large blocks, but the direct contrary. More amazing than this is the fact that, owing to a shifting of responsibility, the offer of one of the Commissioners, who was particularly well qualified, to examine the material before it was employed, was not accepted; because, forsooth, the salary of 150*l.* per annum demanded for this inestimable service could find no sponsors: "there being a difficulty with regard to the party who was to be held responsible for this unimportant amount; and the matter was thus left to persons who admit that they had little or no prior experience of this description of stone, though they evidently entertained suspicions of the durability of some of it they were employing." As to the character of this last, the contractor and his foreman stated it was, in general, extraordinarily good; other witnesses maintained the direct contrary, and that even in the quarries themselves some specimens were in a state of decomposition. One of the building foremen declared that, knowing certain beds in some of the quarries were liable to decay, he abandoned them. The Chemists, who make a separate Report, state that the unequal permanence of the stone may be attributed "to such structural differences as may be comprehended under the term 'state of aggregation.'" The general evil may arise from the diffusion of acids in the London atmosphere. Sulphuric acid, not only corroding and rendering soluble the earthy carbonates existing in the stone, but forming with magnesia a readily crystallizable salt, sulphate of magnesia, remarkable for the large proportion of water it contains, exerts an influence almost identical with that of frost upon the particles of stone. This opinion is further borne out by the existence of marked efflorescence of sulphate of magnesia upon those portions of the stone where exfoliation has taken place. The committee do not recommend any entire coating, by any preservative process, of the whole building; but that it should be watched, and some efficient process applied when decay declares itself. When this may be important, and occasioned by the fall of rain on an upper projecting and exposed surface, a cover of sheet-lead or zinc is recommended. In extreme cases the decaying stone might be replaced. As to the processes for preservation, the committee are of opinion that no satisfactory one has been yet invented, nor the decay arrested nor prevented by those as yet applied. As to future precautions, none can be recommended in the short space of time available. The same cause has prevented a decision on the final question, as to desirable stones for future use. Both the magnesian limestones and Portland stone would require careful watching and selection. One of the committee, Mr. Burnell, well qualified for his voluntary task, went to Paris to inquire into the practice of the French architects, and found that the stone employed by them, though very different from that of the Houses of Parliament, suffered also from decay, although in a comparatively pure atmosphere and in a wood-burning locality. The committee recommend watching; the preparation of a record of the present condition of the building; experiments with preservative materials and agents; local renovation; and express a confident hope in the early appearance of a remedy for the evil—although they do not even hint an authority for such expectation.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—Mr. G. G. Scott's design for the reconstruction of the lantern of Ely Cathedral, which is to be considered a memorial to the late Dean Peacock, who himself did so much for the preservation and restoration of

the noble church over which he presided for so many years, is to be commenced forthwith. The estimated cost of the work is about 61,000*l.*; promises of subscriptions sufficient to justify the commencement of this work having been received, no further delay will occur. Like the existing lantern, the new one is to be of oak, cased in lead; and a grand improvement in the aspect of the entire edifice is anticipated from the fact that Mr. Scott has designed the openings in it in better keeping with the character of the general architecture surrounding it than is now the case. The decoration of the ceiling of the nave, by Mr. L'Estrange, with a series of circles containing Old Testament subjects, inclosed in appropriate minor decorations, is advancing, as is the new choristers' school.

Messrs. Lavers & Barraud are rapidly progressing with the execution of the large west window in stained glass for Christ Church, Hants. This is the gift of Admiral Walcott, M.P., to the Abbey Church, and may be said to form part of the extensive restorations made therein under the charge of Mr. B. Ferrey. It is of a Perpendicular character, divided into four stages or rows, of six lights each: the total height is 32 feet 6 inches, the width, 12 feet 4 inches. The three lowest stages are traversed by upright mullions, perfectly straight. The head is filled in with tracery, in the central top-light of which is represented Our Lord, with his arms extended in the form of a cross, the triangle and the dove embodying the presence of the Holy Trinity and forming the crown, as it were, to the subject of the entire work, *Te Deum*. In the side portions of this head are disposed the Heavenly Host, a crowd of Ministering Angels, &c. In the smaller intervening spaces are placed the Alpha and Omega, the Martyr's Crown and Palm. In the next lower tier of lights are placed the Prophets, Saints and Martyrs, with appropriate emblems. Beneath this are the Apostles, grouped in threes, in each of the four middle compartments, illustrating the Holy Church throughout the world. Next to the Apostles, and completing this line of compartments, are represented two Bishops of Winchester, St. Swithun and William of Wykeham. In the next and third tier the subjects illustrated are, "When thou tookest upon Thee to deliver man," &c., and "We believe that thou shalt come to be our Judge": the former being illustrated by the Birth of Our Lord in the stable at Bethlehem, the Adoration of the Shepherds, and Offerings of the Wise Men; the latter, by Our Lord sitting in Judgment, surrounded by Angels blowing trumpets and groups of beatified Saints. Beneath these, and forming the foot of the whole work, are six smaller panels or divisions, containing busts of the four Evangelists; and on the two outermost spaces St. Ambrose and St. Augustine, each writing, and inspired by an Angel reciting the *Te Deum*. The general arrangement of this large and very imposing work is by Messrs. Lavers & Barraud; the design by Mr. J. M. Allen. The disposition of the masses of colour, so far as can be shown at present by the large portion of the entire work arranged to be seen, promises to be effective and broad, while it is harmonious and various to a high degree, so that the whole cannot but be remarkably impressive when placed, a few weeks hence, in the church itself. We observe with great satisfaction, that the peculiar requirements of stained glass, distinct as these are from those of picture-painting, have been carefully attended to; and although the result cannot be considered irreproachable, it shows a vast advance upon the chill, tame and low-toned works, which so often misrepresent the powers of the art.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN, under the Management of MISS LOUISA PYNE and MR. W. HARRISON, WILL OPEN for the SIXTH OPERATIC SEASON, on MONDAY, October 21st, when will be presented (first time) an entirely New Opera, by Howard Glover, to be entitled "RUY BLAS." Further particulars in future Advertisements.

SEPTEMBER MUSIC IN SEVILLE.

Cádiz, September. No living person may hope to see the world of believers wholly disabused of its old fixed ideas.

Italy will, for many, continue to be the land of song "till King Sebastian comes back,"—the towns of Spain so many haunts where, on the cool of summer nights, a romantic amount of serenade, fandango and castanet-work is to be found, as people in fancy dresses dance and make love beneath the moon. And the same dear credulous folk who have not got nearer to reality than such as is described in 'Santo Sebastiano,' or 'Gonsalvo de Cordova,' or what their elders have told concerning the sunny holidays (then rare, and, as such, precious) spent by young merchant or squire in the South, will still issue their doleful jeremiads over the want of music in England, and most of all on the dead stillness of Babylon "out of the season." How whimsically a column of the *Times* for a September day, promising Mr. Mellon's "Mozart night" at Covent Garden; Choral contests for the Many, Opera Concerts for the Choice, at the Crystal Palace; Selections from 'Simone Bocanegra' at "The Oxford"; Opera companies moving to and fro in England; announcing the splendid Birmingham Festival as just over, and the Hereford one as to come,—brought this amount of uncorrected fallacy before me an hour ago, I should despair of making any one believe, who had not just been passing a few days in the richly picturesque city of Seville; and there (like the writer) tried his best to come at popular music, or such music that exists, in any shape.

Not even in Italy—and that is saying much—has the amount of what I have heard in any previous foreign journey, during the same number of days, been so small. It was something not to be cheated altogether of a musical instrument known by reputation to most concerned in the subject,—the organ in Seville Cathedral, on the Epistle side of the choir. It stands in a building beyond most other buildings fitted for the pomps and mysteries of organ-playing,—beyond any other cathedral I know, picturesque in its lofty cavernous intricacies of gloom, in the magical lights which, at one hour in the day, burnish up some overlooked chapel to a mellow splendour, at another, illuminate the crucifix, high in air, above the fretted screen of the great altar, and which, relieved though it is by a rich crimson background, in the morning is but dimly seen, if at all. It is impossible wholly to disconnect musical sounds produced by unseen hands, when they burst out in a theatre of solemn exhibition so magical as this noble building, from their scenic accessories. How the organ, if tested in the show-room in a factory, might be approved, it is as little possible to form an idea,—in its own place the sound is sublime, with the usual Continental tendency towards super-brilliance. There seemed to me good pedal tones, though resorted to with great timidity by the poor player; great variety, too, in the *solo* stops, which are numerous, though many (if I mistake not) only extend over half the register, a fact which has deceived some as to the real size and power of the organ, and no one more egregiously than the author of 'The Handbook,' whose statement that the organ "has 5,300 pipes and 110 stops more than that of Haerlem," is calculated to mislead. But our author, smart as he was, knew little of his subject, since he complains of the "palisades of pipes" (as essential to an organ-front as walls to a building) as "inappropriate." A more precise account should be substituted; exact specifications existing in English treatises. In Seville, no rectification is to be hoped for on the part of the passing amateur. For once he may find all inspection of his favourite instrument impossible, unless he command high ecclesiastical influence. One has no right to call rigid persistence in a rule laid down a discourtesy. We English tourists are far too apt to resent the result of our determination to force business. But the veto is the exceptional fact of the kind as yet standing on our record to prove the rule of a courtesy which (together with a rare politeness and probity among subordinates and persons of low estate) makes large compensation for the material discomforts of Spanish travel.

Who has yet learnt to disconnect Seville (with its *Almaviva* house and its *Don Juan* monument) from the idea of guitars at all hours of the night? The aspect of its narrow streets, as we have seen them, will not chill him into doing so. What

could be gayer, more picturesque, more tempting, than glimpses at every third house passed—through the open door, into some court-yard used as a summer saloon, with its lights, its orange-trees, its oleanders, its pictures, its pianoforte and its tapestry frames, at which some lady might be seen, sitting in the mystic glow, playing at work, or more idly playing with her fan, one of a little circle! Yet not a sound of dance-tune or song issued thence; and this was the more vexatious since your Spaniard seems to have a sound manly voice of his own. There was only one measure to be adopted, the prosaic one of bespeaking music. A guitar-player and singer came, both capable of showing what is the humour of the hour, and the former (better skilled of the two) of showing the real style of his instrument and the pattern of those old national "fits" and measures which do not depend on the Riego or O'Donnell of the time being. This pattern previous research has disposed me to conceive lies within a narrow compass, and has small variety. The mendicant, in the *Puerta del Sol*, had taught us in Madrid as much as was to be learnt in Seville. But the finger of our musician was firmer. In all the music I have heard the feeling for accent has been good, and he played with spirit and some apparent enjoyment. So, too, sang his partner, a bold, black-browed fellow; though not impudent in his behaviour, anything but abashed, and some of whose songs, it may be feared, were not the fittest for a "Family Library." His voice was a good stout baritone: produced without twang or trick. I have heard and seen worse musicians and more coarsely behaved men than this tavern pair sighed and swooned over in gay London houses! How different the arena of exhibition here! The inner court of our hotel is a court surrounded with arcades, supported on marble columns, in a by-outlet of which daily ironing goes on, in the centre whereof is an ivy bower, like a big bee-hive, with four tiled entrances and four tiled benches round a fountain, on which the cook is apt to retire to read his novel, or to sleep, or to arrange two or three flowers for Rosa, the laundry-girl. Outside this bower sat the artists; and the people of the house,—a melancholy set, however kindly, out of whom the long drought seemed to have parched up all their cheerfulness, crept in, or lounged about,—the melancholy book-keeper, the fat and melancholy waiter, the lean and melancholy *dito*, the melancholy *valet de place* (a capital one though) and his damaged poodle without a tail: a gay audience this for guitars in Seville on a September night, but seemingly cheered, I am happy to add, out of some of its melancholy by a treat so cheap and simple.

The other music we heard in Seville was that of the military band, as weak as it is numerous, playing to an audience of more than ten thousand persons in the midst of the new *Plaza* (the mean ugliness of which is a disgrace to Seville). The music was too innocuous to be offensive. The crowd was remarkable on the same grounds as *Ho Fi's* tea, because there was so little in it to remark. The women of course wore mantillas and manoeuvred fans; the working men had round hats, jackets and sashes; but "the costumes of *Figaro*," promised as not unfrequent in Andalusia, are not "got up" out of "the season" apparently, unless perhaps a *Caballero* should pass as rich as the English nobleman who, desirous of seeing the antique dress of the peasants on the "Pianna dei Greci," near Palermo, organized a wedding betwixt two peasants, for the state exhibition of their finery, by advertising a dowry for the bride of five hundred pounds! C.

HAYMARKET.—Mr. Edwin Booth, son to the Mr. Booth who competed with the elder Kean and afterwards gathered laurels in America, appeared on Monday on these boards to test the reputation which he has long enjoyed in the United States. Rumours had preceded him of the characteristics and style of his acting, which it was reasonably conceived would resemble his father's and those of his great rival. The part chosen for his *début* in England was that of *Shylock*, a part eminently fitted to bring out the peculiarities of the school to

which he was supposed to belong. He was well received by a crowded audience, and had full reason to be satisfied with his welcome. His first scene was sufficiently promising, and the more so because bearing fewer marks of imitation than had been expected. His voice and action were natural, and the general manner was apparently that of an artist whose impulses were under the control of his judgment, and whose physical powers required judicious husbanding. His declamation was, however, forthcoming when required; and in his justification of the Jew's claim to revenge it was employed with force and effect. In the great scene of his rage on his daughter's flight he manifested uncommon power, but that power was rather in startling contrast with the smoother movement of the earlier scenes, and certainly needs harmonizing,—not by any reduction of its violence or fervour, but an increase of energy in the previous situations. The trial scene was marked by the prevalence of judgment rather than an extent of resources, yet was not without its pathos. Mr. Booth was very well supported. Mrs. Charles Young, in *Portia*, was eminently satisfactory. Mr. Farren, as *Gratiano*, showed considerable skill as an elocutionist, and Mr. Howe, as *Bassanio*, acted with commendable propriety. It is now some time since we saw Mr. Buckstone in *Launcelot Gobbo*, but his impersonation has lost none of its rich humour, and was heartily greeted and appreciated by the house. Among the numerous importations that we may now expect from the Disunited States, as refugees from the perils or inconveniences of civil war, Mr. Booth will probably be found the most eligible for that classic walk of dramatic art in which we have now few English professors.

PRINCESS'S.—The influence of American emigration has also affected this establishment. Mr. Brougham having produced with success a five-act comedy, called 'Playing with Fire,' in New York, and since tested its acceptability with an English audience at Manchester, was also desirous of trying its effects on London critics. The comedy, accordingly, was produced on Saturday; and proved to be very much what we expected,—a rattling, touch-and-go, improbable medley of incidents, in which as much as possible was trusted to action, and little to dialogue. The plot would be slight even for a farce. A married couple, Mr. and Mrs. Waverly (Mr. George Jordan and Miss Rose Leclercq), suffering under a plethora of happiness, consult separately *Dr. Savage* and his *Wife* (Mr. Brougham and Miss Carlotta Leclercq) on their case; and are advised, unknown to each other, to get up a little flirtation, that, by the production of jealous excitement, they may become more sensible of their real love for each other. What, however, is commenced in sport, soon acquires the force of earnest; and Mr. Waverly and Mrs. Savage are both thrown into terrific fits of the most malignant passion in nature, called by Dr. Young "the hydra of calamities," and by Shakspeare more mildly, "the green-eyed monster"; so that the most evil results may be expected from the reckless experiment. In a word, they are found to be "playing with fire" indeed; and are in imminent danger of being scorched in the encounter. In this view of the relation of parties there is some originality, and more ingenuity in the invention of situations to bring out the violence of contending passions. No sooner, however, has the author secured his point and his laugh, than down he brings the curtain, leaving the spectator to harmonize the incidents and supply for himself such connexion as may be wanting. The proceedings are further complicated by an underplot, of which Mr. Widdicombe is the hero—the assistant of Dr. Savage, who slyly carries on a little business on his own account as a matrimonial agent, in his master's name, and thus gets into his snare uncle Timothy Crabstick (Mr. Ryder), to the great annoyance of his sister Mrs. Crabstick (Mrs. Weston), who follows her brother to London. The old snarling bachelor is nearly entrapped into an union with Mrs. Waverly's servant; and is only saved by the course which events take in the solution of the great trial of hearts, in which the principals of the play are engaged. When the misery is brought to a climax, a diversion is readily

effected by a few words of explanation; and the curtain descends on a very lively and decidedly successful comedy.

STRAND.—Mr. Byron has given another burlesque to these boards, under the title of 'Esmeralda; or, the "Sensation" Goat.' The animus of the production is manifest in its title, and the execution is full of life, spirit and point. The reputation of the author for the reckless wit proper to pieces of this kind thronged the doors long before opening with expectant auditors, many of whom were disappointed of admission. In structure, the burlesque, of course, follows the drama pretty closely; but in dialogue and effects divaricates perceptibly. More than ever has Mr. Byron loaded his lines with double meanings and unexpected sounds, and brought forth the most excruciating lingual results; meanwhile the audience delight in the torture which the Queen's English suffers, as if language were not made for use but sport, and its speakers had no feeling for its proprieties. The piece has been admirably placed on the stage. Nothing can be more picturesque than the gipsy groups in the old streets of Paris. The struggle in the belfry is after the approved fashion of Punch's contests in the puppet-show; and the Hunchback of Notre Dame fights in a fashion which, though borrowed, is likely to increase his popularity. The catastrophe must, of course, undergo a sea-change. The characters rejoice in a general revival, and unite in the *finale*. Most of the parodies, we should have mentioned, are derived from the Christy's Minstrel-melodies. The scenery, painted by Mr. Albert Calcott, is most skillfully adapted to the limited arena. The performers revelled in the opportunity of excelling. Miss Marie Wilton, as *Pierre Gringoire*, the boy-poet, is elaborately furnished with appointments, and sings and dances with the utmost prettiness and sauciness; and as *Esmeralda* Miss Fanny Josephs showed that she could both sing and act. Mr. James Rogers, as *Claude Frollo*, was well made up and romantically effective; and Mr. J. Clarke, as the *Hunchback*, was as grotesque, as noisy and as irresistible as ever. The *Goat*, by Mr. Danvers, was a Welsh curiosity; and Mr. H. J. Turner, as the Gipsy King *Clopin*, a perfect study of the street artist. The whole performance, indeed, was wonderfully successful.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—That "long vacation" is no more, so far as remission of labour for our English musicians, it needs not to be told. With October, however, our regular English winter of six months sets in, this year with unusual spirit and merriment. Madame Goldschmidt is about (as was to be foreseen) to sing in London and elsewhere in a series of grand concerts, with Herr Goldschmidt as her conductor. Miss Pyne and Mr. Harrison are setting to work again, with gay promise of novelties. We shall be hearing presently of Monday Popular Concerts and Friday Exeter Hall Oratorios—the more the better; let only the weary routine of performance of known and approved masterpieces be varied. In England, however, as elsewhere, we shall as yet be for a few weeks to come, not in the promised land, so much as in the land of promise. This is, then, the time for stringing together a few foreign items of news, which either may have escaped notice, or else belong to the hour.

Opera matters look ill in Italy. At Naples (who can wonder in the present posture of affairs?) the manager of San Carlo has "thrown up his book."—At La Scala, Milan, Madame Colson, a third-rate French *prima donna*, has been singing in 'Don Pasquale' without much success.—At Florence, we read, Madame Vera-Lorini, in the 'Giuditta' of Signor Peri, has been received enthusiastically. Some may recollect that the *Athenæum* has always had some expectations from this composer. The above 'Giuditta,' and Signor Peri's 'Vittore Pisani,' too, figure in the programme for the winter of the Italian Opera House at Madrid. By this it would seem as if the master's reputation was beginning to travel. How long will it be ere it reaches Paris or London?—The Italian Opera of the French capital, which has just commenced its season, will

perhaps be rather retrospective than experimental for 1861—2—since "its start" was made with 'Il Matrimonio,' sung by Mesdames Penco, Albani and Battu, M.M. Béart, Radiali and Zucchini; and stress is laid on a coming revival there of Mozart's 'Cosi.'—Mdlle. Patti and the sisters Marchisio are to sing in Italian opera at Berlin during the winter. The opening of the Italian Opera at St. Petersburg has been retarded, by the death of M. Caves, the manager.

German papers tell us, that the coronation music of the King of Prussia, at Königsberg, has been confided to M. Meyerbeer, who has undertaken to compose for the occasion a Hymn and March; thereby adding another to the list of like compositions by him, which is becoming long in disproportion to that of his operas.—Herr Tschiesche, whom the oldest German opera-hunters must remember as a full-grown *basso*, has only just retired from the stage at Berlin.—A new opera, by Herr Hiller, is to be performed during the winter, entitled 'The Catcombs.'—At Vienna, things seem coming to a pass, if no one is to be found more capable of singing the hero's part in 'Robert le Diable' than Herr Stigelli.—Herr Berwald, the Swedish composer, some of whose music, it may be remembered, was performed in London, during the season, has just died at Stockholm, at an advanced age.

The new grand organ, announced as in preparation for the Hall of the Conservatory in Brussels, was opened the other day at the National Festivals. Our neighbours (given in their musical doings to no small amount of self-admiration) are instructed that this is to be "the model organ." M. Lemmens was the principal player.

MISCELLANEA

Lichfield Cathedral.—This Cathedral is to be reopened on the 23rd inst., a date considerably earlier than was expected. The reasons why it has been considered desirable to do this are thus stated in a report addressed to the subscribers towards the late restorations. Firstly, that the whole area might be available on the various occasions which collect within it large numbers of worshippers from different parts of the diocese. Future progress in the restorations will not interrupt the daily services. It appears also that if the re-opening were postponed until all deficiencies are supplied, many years must pass before the entire Cathedral can be presented to the diocese. "If," the statement goes on to say, "as is already the case, 5,000*l.* has been contributed towards the restoration, it cannot be doubted that a like sum must be raised to secure completion." The following details show what remains to be done: "The reredos (estimated cost 2,300*l.*) with the sedilia, the fitting up of the Lady Chapel for an early service, screens east of the stall-work, pulpit and due supply of seats, the restoration of the windows in the south transept aisle, the re-flooring of the greater part of the area, the repairing of the arcading of the nave, the improvement of the Debased west window, the restoration of the Chapter House and library, the provision of vestries, and by degrees perhaps the introduction of additional stained glass windows,—these works will be proceeded with as means for their execution are provided." The same statement thus specifies what has already been done towards a complete restoration of this building. "It will be seen with satisfaction that the liberality of the diocese has enabled the greater part of the dilapidated or wantonly destroyed stone-work to be restored, the whitewash of long standing removed, the Bishop's throne and stall-work to be completed, the pavement of the choir to be ordered (although it will not be entirely laid), and a light and open screen to be substituted for the former complete separation of the church into two parts; besides the introduction of many costly requisites, the organ, the font, the lecterns, with Bible and Litany desk, lighting standards and candlesticks, books of service, embroidered altar-cloth, pews-box, &c., many of which have been the gifts of individual benefactors.

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